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Selecting teachers for overseas schools : an attitude scale for determining self and cross-cultural acceptance.

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SELECTING TEACHERS FOR OVERSEAS SCHOOLS: AN ATTITUDE SCALE FOR DETERMINING SELF AND CROSS-CULTURAL ACCEPTANCE

A Dissertation Presented

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Selecting Teachers for Overseas Schools: An Attitude Scale for Determining Self and Cross-Cultural Acceptance . . (June 1974)

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This study is concerned with developing and evaluating an attitude scale to assist the overseas school administrator in identifying those teachers best able to make the adjustment to life and work in an alien culture.

The literature supports the view that people with strong positive self-concepts will demonstrate similar strong and positive accepting behavior towards others. Given this fact, the study tests the hypothesis that teachers who demonstrate great cross-cultural strength will also reflect accepting behavior towards others in their own culture. Further, that a predictive attitude scale can be established to measure this strength.

Using the two sub-tests (self-acceptance and acceptance of others) in the Berger Self-Acceptance Scale as a base, a third and similar Likert scale to measure cross-cultural strength was developed and pilot tested.

The modified Berger Self-Acceptance Scale, with its three sub-tests was administered to fifty-two U.S. born and trained teachers under contract in two overseas American

Schools (twenty-nine at the American Graded School in Sao Paulo, Brazil and twenty-three at the American School of Japan in Tokyo). In order to determine whether there were certain factors in the respondent's background that might effect his/her cross-cultural strength, a biographical questionnaire was prepared for use with the modified Berger Scale. Further, for purposes of correlation with other measures of the scale's validity, the overseas test administrator was asked to independently rank each respondent's overseas adjustment on a three point scale.

RESULTS

1. Using a Pearson Correlation, it was established that there was significant (.001 level) correlation between Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale, consisting of the Self-Acceptance and Acceptance of Others Scales, and the Cross-Cultural Scale designed for the study.

2. The respondent's scores on the Self-Acceptance Scale correlated at the .001 level with the scores on the scale measuring Acceptance of Others.

3. There was a correlation (.007 level) between the respondent's scores on the Cross-Cultural Scale and the scale measuring Acceptance of Others.

4. The results of a multiple step-wise regression showed little correlation between nineteen biographic variables and the respondent's various sub-test scores.

Only in terms of the respondent's marital status and childhood neighborhood environment was there evidence of positive correlation.

5. The evidence, though inconclusive, suggests there is a positive correlation between the results on the modified Berger Self-Acceptance Scale and the test administrator's evaluation of the adjustment of the teacher respondents.

CONSLUSIONS

The findings of the study suggest that an attitude scale measuring self-acceptance, acceptance of others and cross-cultural acceptance be used, along with academic ability, aptitude and personal recommendations, in selecting teachers best suited to live and work in a culture alien to their own. The attitude scale should be considered a major screening device.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

> Those who began life in one culture and are attempting to adjust to another . . . these are the 'marginal men' whose plight is recognized by all who have worked with the phenomenon of acculturation. Lacking the reinforcement derived from constant expressions in overt behavior, the early-established value-attitude systems of such individuals are weakened and overlaid. At the same time, it seems that they are rarely if ever eliminated, still less replaced by new systems congruous with the cultural milieu in which the individual has to operate.[1]

The American who goes overseas, irrespective of motives, reflects a culture and value system peculiar to his/her own country and life style and alien to that of the host country. Should one remain in the host country for a protracted period of time, one's measure of adjustment to the alien culture will depend on a number of factors. Among these are such things as the individual's self-image, his/her ability to relate to others in his/her own culture milieu and to those in a cross-cultural relationship. These factors may be tempered by such things as sensitivity to verbal and non-verbal cues, language skill and background knowledge of the customs and culture

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[1]Linton, Ralph. The Cultural Background of Personality. Appleton-Century, 1945, p. 145.

of the host country.

DeCrow, author of Cross-Cultural Interaction Skills, points out that:

> . . . thousands of Americans are serving abroad in missions where competence in the field of human relations determines success or failure . . . Technical competence, language skill and other capacities will prove ineffective and/or insufficient if rapport and communication cannot be established between the American and his foreign host.[2]

As is true in any profession, there are teachers whose lack of rapport and communication skills are a handicap in their own cultural setting and would no doubt prove a disaster in a foreign milieu.

Today it is more generally recognized that the cause of difficulty in adjusting to overseas living may lie within the individual. Emotional difficulties that may have troubled the individual to a lesser degree at home may become accentuated and harder to cope with abroad. Moving to a new and unfamiliar place produces a different pattern of stresses from the old accustomed ones. Studies reveal that those who have had a successful tenure abroad usually have fewer prejudices or demonstrate a greater awareness of them. Further, these individuals are usually more socially mature, flexible and per-

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[2]Roger DeCrow. "Cross-Cultural Interaction Skills: A Digest of Recent Training Literature." Eric Clearinghouse for Adult Education, ED 029-159, 1966-1968, p.1.

sonally stable.[3]

As pointed out by Combs, the attitudes and prejudices of the individual are coterminous with his/her field of perceptions, because one's own behavior is a natural outgrowth of how one sees oneself and how one views the situation in which one is involved.[4] Recognizing the fact that acceptance of self and in turn acceptance of others is primary in interpersonal relations, the means of identifying individuals with these strengths takes on significant importance.

Statement of Problem

One of the most difficult and recurring problems faced by the overseas school administrator involves the selection and retention of teachers.

Although the professional qualifications required of teacher candidates may vary somewhat from school to school, most overseas schools employ those teachers who are not nationals of the host country, on a two-year contract. The rationale for this contractual practice

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[3]Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, Psychiatry and Public Affairs, (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1966), p. 163.

[4]Arthur Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1949).

stems from two important considerations. First, as justification for the sizeable round-trip transportation fare between the teacher's home and the host country, the cost of which is usually included in the teacher's contract. The second reason is to help insure operational stability. Usually it takes the new teacher a full year to become totally adjusted to the overseas environment. This means that the new teacher often does not become fully productive until his/her second year abroad. Given the high rate of attrition it is conceivable that an overseas faculty could at any given time be operational with about fifty percent of the staff in their first year on site. Every teacher that completes his or her first overseas contract and signs a second contract for an additional two years, is increasing the stability and efficiency of the faculty. In addition, considerable money and administrative time is saved in recruiting faculty replacements and orienting new teachers to their overseas school and community.

The overseas school serving foreign nationals usually has a student body that is in a constant state of flux. The student's tenure in the school is subject to his parent's orders from his respective employers. Parents who are employees of a government or international business enterprise are often transferred from one overseas

post to another. Since these moves are seldom coordinated with the school calendar, students are entered and withdrawn throughout the school year. Although a rapidly changing student population is not uncommon in many of our urban schools, the overseas situation involves more unique problems. For example, students who have pursued their education in several different countries frequently arrive with academic backgrounds reflecting exposure to a wide range of curricula. They sometimes speak several languages, though none of them well, and frequently are unacquainted with the syntax, grammar or literature of any language. Their formal education may be lacking in such fundamental training as to make the usual grade placement impossible. Classes reflecting a wide spread in the chronological age of the students are not uncommon. Here is the classic example of a learning environment that demands teachers capable of working with each student's individual differences.

Keeping all of these factors in mind, it becomes clear why the overseas school administrator wants to have the maximum in diagnostic information available to help in selecting and retaining teachers best equipped to cope with the complexities of teaching in a multi-national school.

Teachers who possess the qualities essential to a successful overseas experience are not easy to come by. Hoehn, in discussing cross-cultural training for military advisors, suggests five essential competencies which, apart from professional qualifications, seem equally valid for anyone working overseas, including teachers.

1. Understanding the interaction process (as contrasted with knowledge about the foreign culture)

2. Empathic awareness and understanding of the values, assumptions and attitudes of the host country people

3. Insight into the cultural basis of one's own values, assumptions and attitudes

4. Understanding and acceptance of the roles called for in the overseas assignment

5. Skills and techniques that will promote success in these fields[5]

The validity of Hoehn's first three statements is reinforced by Combs in his Florida studies. In these investigations, Combs found that effective teachers see themselves as more identified with others, with a capacity to successfully meet life's problems, being dependable, having dignity, integrity, being both likeable and attractive. These same teachers see others as having the capacity to deal with problems, as being friendly,

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[5]Arthur Hoehn, "The Design of Cross-Cultural Training for Military Advisors," HumRRO--Professional Papers. George Washington University, 1966.

well-intentioned and reflecting dignity, integrity and dependability. The successful teacher looks upon others as a source of fulfillment and enhancement rather than threatening or a source of frustration and discouragement.[6] In summary, using Hoehn's terms, Combs found successful teachers to be insightful of self and others, empathic and understanding of the interaction process.

The question posed in recruiting teachers for work abroad is, how can one, with some degree of objectivity, identify those teachers who will be able to make the adjustment to an alien culture with a minimum of culture shock. If Hoehn's competencies claimed essential for work overseas do reflect a degree of congruence with Combs' model of the effective teacher, then it would follow that Combs' technique for identifying these teachers should be equally valid for finding the teacher best suited to work in an alien culture. The flaw in this argument is that Combs' study did not consider the cross-cultural factor. His effective teachers were identified while working and living in their native culture. The introduction of this additional variable will require another data gathering strategy or

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[6]Arthur Combs, et al., Florida Studies in the Helping Professions, University of Florida Monographs: Social Sciences, No. 37., University of Florida Press, 1969.

modification of one already in use.

Upshur points out the need for a test instrument "which can supply reliable and valid measures of cultural understanding." He then goes on to explain what constitutes evidence of cultural understanding:

> In cross-cultural testing, one is concerned with whether the 'cultural stranger' can behave (non-linguistically) in such a manner that his intended meanings are understood by members of the foreign culture community, and whether he understands their intended meanings when he observes their behavior or the products of their behavior.[7]

Upshur gives us four aims of testing as he sees them in cross-cultural terms:

> 1. The test user wishes to determine how an individual would behave and what he would understand in a new culture by noting his understanding and behavior in a sample of situations from that culture. The test maker would collect a representative sample of situations to present to the individual so that the individual's understanding and behavior could be observed.
>
> 2. The test user wishes to estimate from a test score how well an individual will be able in the future to understand and behave appropriately in a target culture community. The test maker will assemble test items (of any sort) which he can demonstrate to predict such future understanding and behavior.
>
> 3. The test user wishes to estimate from a test score how well an individual is able at the time of testing to understand and behave appropriately in a target culture community. The test maker will assemble

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[7] J.A. Upshur, "Cross-Cultural Testing--What to Test." Language Learning, Vol. 16, No. 3 & 4, 1966, p. 183-196.

items which he can demonstrate to indicate such current understanding and behavior.

4. The test user believes that there is some trait or quality called 'cultural awareness' (any other name will do) which underlies an individual's ability to communicate and interact in a foreign culture community, and he wishes to estimate the amount of this trait an individual possesses. The task of the test maker is especially complex; he must not only determine what that trait called 'cultural awareness' is but must also demonstrate its relevance to effective communication and interaction.[8]

If one accepts Upshur's objectives for cross-cultural testing, the task is to devise an instrument that can measure anindividual's degree of cultural awareness and potential for functioning effectively in a different culture. This means that one is concerned with a variety of personal characteristics central to the problem of adjustment. These include such things as self-esteem, sensitivity to the needs of others and identification with people of one's own and other cultures.

Attendant to these primary adjustment factors are the following ancillary considerations:

1. Does age, sex, marital status and teaching experience have any effect on the primary adjustment factors?

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[8]Ibid.

2. Does the ethnic and socio-economic background of the respondent's parents or the language spoken in their home have any bearing on the primary adjustment factors?

3. Does the respondent's educational background, and facility with foreign languages have any bearing on the primary adjustment factors?

This investigation is based on the premise that the degree of congruence with one's environment and the potential for functional success in that environment are influenced by one's degree of self-acceptance and in turn acceptance of others. Further, that when one moves into an alien culture, cross-cultural acceptance, a third dimension for success is added. Along with these primary concerns, the study will also test the aforementioned demographic factors as they affect one's cross-cultural strength.

Purpose of the Study

The universal need for more objective methods for selecting teachers for work overseas cannot be overemphasized. Mistakes in teacher selection are wasteful of administrative time, a drain on the school budget, disruptive to the school academic program, demoralizing for students, faculty and administration and traumatic for the mis-hired teacher.

The significance of this study centers on the need for establishing objective criteria for the selection of teachers to work in overseas schools. Further, the study will help to determine measurement factors that avoid bias toward one particular culture yet are predictive of a respondent's adjustment to any culture.

Given non-biased, predictive criteria, the focus of the study centers on the construction of an evaluation instrument that will provide a realistic objective score or value to be known as the "adjustment factor." This factor would indicate the respondent's potential for making a satisfactory adjustment to life overseas.

Finally, the test data have significance in determining both quantitatively and qualitatively the pre- and/or in-service orientation and counseling needed by the teacher candidate.

Definition of Terms

Adjustment factor: a numerical value obtained by adding the respondent's score on each question (based on a five-point scale) of the modified Self-Adjustment Scale and the values assigned to the responses on the background questionnaires.

Alien culture: a society which does not share some or all of one's customes, beliefs, value system or language.

Likert scale: a method of attitude scale construction introduced by Rensis Likert.

Overseas: any country apart from the United States.

Overseas school: those schools that serve the children of American families stationed overseas. In many instances these same schools may serve children of the host country as well as third country nationals.

Questions of the Study

In formulating this study the following questions have been raised:

1. Can Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale be successfully modified and used to measure a teacher candidate's cross-cultural strength (attitudes) as well as his/her acceptance of self and acceptance of others?

2. Can factors be identified in an individual's background that can be correlated to his/her ability to adjust to an alien culture?

3. Can a questionnaire be used to provide statistically significant evidence that identifiable factors in an individual's background are indicators of one's ability to adjust to life in an alien culture?

4. Can the results from Berger's modified Self-Acceptance Scale and a background questionnaire be predictive of the amount of pre- and/or in-service orientation and counseling needed by a teacher candidate for work overseas?

Hypotheses

The ability to identify teachers who can work effectively in a cross-cultural setting is of great importance to the overseas school administrator. This

research is predicated upon the contention that such teachers reflect self-acceptance and acceptance of others, both in their own and in cross-cultural settings. The hypotheses are designed to test the existence of these plus other factors in the teacher's earlier years which may have predictive value.

It is hypothesized that:

1. An attitude scale can be developed to indicate a teacher's potential for adjusting to life and work in an alien culture.

2. Teachers with strong positive self concepts will demonstrate accepting behavior towards others.

3. Teachers who demonstrate strong cross-cultural strengths will also reflect accepting behavior towards others in their own culture.

4. The childhood ethnic and linguistic experience of teachers does influence their ability to adjust to life in an alien culture.

5. The educational background, kinds of teaching experience and fluency in the host country's language are factors which positively effect a teacher's ability to adjust to life in an alien culture.

6. Age, sex, and marital status will not be significant factors in a teacher's ability to adjust to life in an alien culture.

7. There will be a positive correlation between the scores on the modified Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale and the school administrator's judgment of a teacher's adjustment to life in an alien culture.

8. The data obtained from the modified Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale will provide a predictive, numerical "Adjustment Factor."

The next chapter will review the literature as it pertains to the proposed study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The overseas school principal or superintendent has responsibilities that often exceed those of the administrator here in the United States. Operating in a culture and language foreign to his/her own and working with children, parents, and staff of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds, requires a high degree of sensitivity and understanding.

Although the overseas American Schools and the U.S. Department of Defense Overseas Dependents Schools may count some host country teachers among their faculty, the major portion of the teachers are U.S. citizens who have gained their professional training in the United States. It is the administrator's responsibility to recruit, select and employ those teachers who, in his/her judgment, are best suited to live and work with a highly diverse student population in an overseas setting.

One of the least investigated but most pressing problems of the overseas administrator is the rationale used for the selection and retention of staff. A review of the literature includes those problems encountered by business, industry, the Peace Corps, other government agencies and schools in selecting and retaining overseas

personnel. Also, in terms of the research design, additional literature, as it pertains to the paradigm that acceptance of others is dependent on first accepting one's self, will also be reviewed.

Selection of Overseas Personnel for Business and Industry

The selection and training of personnel for positions overseas is of particular concern to industry. Ivancevich, in his study, found that United States corporations are spending in excess of eighteen million dollars per year in selection and predeparture preparation of management personnel for work overseas. A questionnaire sent to those companies listed in Fortune magazine's top-500 list of corporations who are doing business abroad, brought a sixty-six percent response. Of the 127 respondent companies who have manufacturing plants or offices abroad, forty-one (32 percent) use some form of predeparture training program for employees being sent on overseas assignment. In selecting the candidates, the companies consider how long the individual has worked for the company, his/her technical competence, advancement potential, facility with the language of the host country and expertise in the overseas area. Most companies feel that a candidate's deficiencies in one or more areas can be minimized by special training.

Training in the language of the host country was given top priority in thirty-three of the programs while one-half of the programs included some training in the customs of the host country. Living conditions and host country economics were the other topics most often included in the predeparture training programs.[9]

Despite the fact that most of the candidates in Ivancevich's study are being considered for key management positions, no mention is made of evaluating their inter-personal relations, cross-cultural strengths, or their sensitivity to the needs of others.

Though training in the language of the host country was given top priority in the corporation training programs evaluated in the Ivancevich study, Upshur points out that:

> Experience, especially that with foreign students in the United States, has shown, however, that measures of language ability alone have limited power to predict who will be able to function effectively in the new linguistic and cultural environment . . . . There exists therefore, a clear need for test instruments and procedures which can supply reliable and valid measures of cultural understanding.[10]

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[9]John M. Ivancevich, "Predeparture Training for Overseas," Training and Development Journal 23, No. 2 (1969), pp. 36-40.

[10]J.A. Upshur, "Cross-Cultural Testing--What To Test," Language Learning, 16, No. 3 & 4 (1966), p. 183.

Although Wilson thinks that training in the language of the host country is the ideal, he states that:

> Fluency in a foreign language must be distinguished from the capacity to live in a foreign culture--speaking the language is not directly or inevitably connected with the capacity to behave appropriately in a foreign culture.[11]

Wilson suggests that the managerial candidate should take part in his own selection process. By exploring the job requirements and matching them against his own background and training, the candidate can estimate, with his evaluators, his potential for success in a particular position. Wilson also feels that the candidate's wife and children should be brought in as a part of the decision-making process. He attempts to address the question of the candidate's personality and interpersonal relations and cautions:

> Conformists and those obsessed with problems of the underprivileged are unlikely to work out overseas. Authoritarian types are not to be considered since they have difficulty with their peers, often suspicion of strangers and a propensity to find scapegoats. Seductive persuaders and social manipulators are also types to be avoided in cross-cultural assignments.[12]

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[11] A.T.M. Wilson, "Recruitment and Selection for Working in a Foreign Culture," Human Relations, 14, No. 1 (1961), pp. 3-22.

[12] Ibid., pp. 17, 18.

Wilson makes a strong case for using a team approach in evaluating candidates over a period of several days. He cautions against the bias of one evaluator and urges that the selection committee maintain its membership over the years in order to follow up on its decisions and improve its evaluation techniques through continuing feedback.

To reinforce his argument for a team approach to candidate evaluation, Wilson cites the case of the competent military officer who interviewed 3000 applicants for a particular type of military work. The officer rejected fifty percent of the candidates but ultimately all 3000 candidates were employed in the work. A follow up study of the 3000 men two years later revealed that their on-the-job performance, established on a pass-fail basis, was slightly worse than random based on the officer's original evaluation.

Another approach to selecting qualified candidates for positions overseas is suggested by Hollis and Henry. They propose to first identify individuals who in the judgment of their supervisors, host country nationals, other outside overseas (American) experts and the individual's own self appraisal, are successful in their jobs. By examining the individual personalities and the background and experience of these successful individuals,

a set of objective criteria could then be established for locating personnel who would have the potential for success overseas. The rationale for this proposal is based on a study (Measuring "Overall Job Success") done at Standard Oil of New Jersey and aimed at identifying potential managers early in their careers. The study ascertained that composite criteria were more predictable of an individual's potential for success than any of the component criteria.[13]

Cleveland and Mangone in their introduction to The Art of Overseasmanship, give their prescription for success abroad:

> . . . the indespensible 'factor X,' the secret of success for an American working abroad, is a keen sense of the institutional environment, a special ingenuity when it comes to creating and working with organizations of human beings, in the broadest sense of the word a 'sense of politics' . . . 'concepts of management,' 'a concern for the human organization,' and 'a skill of social invention.'[14]

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[13]Peter Hollis and Edwin Henry, "Steps to Better Selection and Training for Overseas Jobs," Personnel, 39, No. 1 (1962), pp. 18-25.

[14]Harlow Cleveland and Gerald Mangone, (ed.), The Art of Overseasmanship (Syracuse University Press, 1957), p. 2.

Embodied here are the manifestations of awareness, sensitivity, cultural strength and practical acumen which need to be codified for more objective identification of sound candidates for overseas posts.

Despite the pleas of men like Wilson, who attempted to set some standards with his quasi-research design for screening candidates, the typical industrial identification and training program places greater emphasis on technical skill and years of service with the company than on adaptability and cross-cultural sensitivity and strength. This researcher contends that the latter two factors at least deserve equal weight in the decision-making process. It is clear that the most competent of overseas workers is useless to his employer if he or she cannot operate in an alien environment.

Torre, who authors a chapter in The Cleveland and Mangone work, in speaking of overseas personnel, says:

> Failures which have been classified as 'lack of technical competence' actually reflect failure at recruitment when persons possessing the wrong kind of skills were hired.[15]

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[15]Torre

The Peace Corps and Other Government Programs

The United States government, through its various agencies, is deeply involved in recruiting and training people for a variety of jobs overseas. Apart from the United States Foreign Service and Diplomatic Corps, the two most widely known government-sponsored programs are AID (Agency for International Development) and the Peace Corps.

The preparation of personnel for United States foreign missions usually involves preservice training at the Foreign Service Institute. Here the trainee is extensively briefed on the culture, government and economics of the host country. A great deal of time is given to language training, both before going on post and continuing while on the job in the host country. Each person is expected to continue his language study until such time as he reaches a prescribed level of proficiency. Usually, a foreign mission has an extensive written post report prepared by on-site personnel under the aegis of the U.S. State Department. Revised frequently, it provides new personnel with information about the country, the people, the culture and such practical matters as housing and health. Given this kind of preparation and considering that embassy personnel below the attache level mainly live and work

within the American colony while on post, adjustment problems are somewhat minimized.

By Executive Order, on March 1, 1961, President John F. Kennedy established the Peace Corps. Later, on September 22nd of that same year, Congress passed the Peace Corps Act into law. Thus began one of the greatest humanitarian programs in the history of the United States. By 1969, more than 40,000 men and women had served in sixty-six different countries. In 1970 alone there were 11,000 volunteers working, living and intimately involved with the people in sixty countries throughout the world.

The Peace Corps was established as a non-career volunteer service providing Americans with the opportunity to serve their own country by sacrifice in another country. The emphasis lies in living and working with the host country nationals at the "grass roots" level. Cross-cultural understanding at a people to people level is the avowed purpose and very heart of the Peace Corps program. The program constantly stresses the importance of community service and international understanding and underplays the importance of the corpsman's professional competence.

The initial Peace Corps candidate selection processes were handled by the Federal Bureau of In-

vestigation. Later, when the program machinery was better established, the candidate's initial processing was taken over by the Civil Service; this included investigating the candidate's background, references and personal interviews.

The first years of the Peace Corps preservice training programs were fraught with a multiplicity of problems. The Peace Corps was a happening, virtually no preparation and planning had been done prior to the selection of the first volunteers. The obvious place to establish training programs was where one had both physical facilities and the professional expertise. It was only natural that the government turned to the universities to provide the staff and design the training programs.

According to Shea, the early Peace Corps training programs had eight identifiable components:

1. Technical studies - to include the knowledge and skills required to perform the assignment overseas.

2. Area studies - to include the historical, political, economic and cultural aspects of the host country.

3. Language - to include knowledge of the indigenous language, basic vocabulary, conversational practice, and technical terms appropriate to the assignment.

4. American studies - to include an analysis of democratic institutions, United States history, and the current social and economic scene.

5. World affairs - to include contemporary international problems, Communist strategy and tactics, and America's role in the world scene.

6. Health and medical training - to include first aid, personal hygiene, and preventive measures required in the assigned area.

7. Physical training and recreation - to include personal conditioning as well as the practice of American and host country games.

8. Peace Corps orientation - to include aims and organization of the Peace Corps and the volunteers' role in it.[16]

Certainly no one could take issue with these stated goals; the breadth of their coverage appears to account for every exigency. However, one very critical element was missing. The historical, political, economic and cultural aspects of the host country were to be studied in some detail but no provisions were made for an exploration of how the volunteer was to deal with these issues within a cross-cultural context. Furthermore, early recruiting procedures gave little attention to an exploration of the volunteer's sensitivity to the needs of others. The interaction skills take on a whole new meaning when one works cross-culturally. Mannerisms, gestures, a variety of non-verbal cues and customs differ from one culture to the next. A lack of sensi-

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[16]Donald R. Shea, "The Preparation of Peace Corps Volunteers for Overseas Service: Challenge and Response," The Annals, (American Academy of Social and Political Science) III, No. 4 (1967), pp. 431-460.

tivity in these critical areas could cause embarrassment or even prove offensive to the host country nationals.

Apart from flaws in the training program, the overriding problem with the design was in implementing it within the framework of a university model. As Harrison and Hopkins[17] describe the situation, there was a total lack of congruency between the educational philosophy of an institution of higher education and the goals of the Peace Corps. The typical U.S. college or university is dedicated to providing training in the manipulation of symbols rather than things, to reliance on thinking rather than feeling and interaction and a commitment to understanding rather than action.

Initially, the Peace Corps program was chopped up to fit the typical university class schedule, the volunteers were lectured to rather than becoming personally involved. Because the program was supposed to be tough, the class hours were extended into the late evening with a rigorous physical program sandwiched into the afternoon. What was to be a preparation for a commitment in human relations, at the "grass roots" level in an alien culture, turned into an endurance

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[17]Roger Harrison and Richard Hopkins, "The Design of Cross-Cultural Training: An Alternative to the University Model," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, III, No. 4 (1967), pp. 431-460.

contest designed to break the spirit of the most idealistic and dedicated trainee.

Despite the fact that it often took the Peace Corps volunteer six months or more to become completely operational in his overseas environment and in spite of a high rate of attrition among trainees, it took several years before some of the university models were scrapped or radically modified for a more viable training procedure. Clearly, the criticism dictated that the mode of instruction must be altered to model the intended outcome.

Harrison and Hopkins feel that one of the more important objectives in any training program for overseas personnel is to:

> . . . develop in the trainee the ability and willingness to take moderate emotional risks in situations where his sense of self-esteem is involved.[18]

This is certainly true of anyone working in the Far East where saving face is of such high import as to be worth a moderate risk. It would be equally true of the Peace Corps volunteer in most any country. His contacts at the village level, with people of limited education and at the bottom of the socio-economic ladder,

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[18]Ibid., p. 440.

makes him, as an outsider and a foreigner, immediately suspect.

Harrison and Hopkins point out that one of the inherent weaknesses in the university model, as a vehicle for training the Peace Corps volunteer, is its failure to provide opportunities to develop interpersonal effectiveness. How could the volunteer establish and maintain trust and communication? How could he be a motivator, a consultant and an advisor? How could he be a change agent at the village level, diagnosing what was going on and devising solutions?

> . . . by sidestepping direct, feeling-level involvement with issues and persons, one fails to develop the 'emotional muscle' needed to handle effectively a high degree of emotional impact and stress.[19]

Clearly a new training model was needed, one based on real situations not abstracts, dealing with people rather than books. This in no way invalidated the eight-point program outlined by Shea, only the method of achieving it needed modification.

Haigh describes one of the first Peace Corps training programs to break with the university model. A program was established at Arizona State University with the initial goal of training volunteers who had been

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[19]Ibid.

selected for their agricultural skills. In addition to the eight training components as outlined by Shea, the Arizona faculty incorporated a human relations component into their model. According to Haigh, this portion of the program had five specific goals, all related to self-awareness:

A) to increase the candidates' awareness of their impact on other people

B) to increase the candidates' awareness of their own patterns for handling interpersonal conflict

C) to permit candidates to explore other patterns for handling interpersonal conflict

D) to increase candidates' awareness of feelings in interpersonal relationships

E) to increase candidates' awareness of their own motives in interaction with others[20]

One of the problems faced by the Arizona faculty was how to get a group of trainees whose most often stated goal was "to help other people," to focus on increasing their own self-awareness. The answer was provided through the help of several tribes of American Indians of the southwest.

In the first weeks of the training program, the trainees worked and lived with the Indians, sharing in all aspects of their daily life. For most of the volunteers,

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[20]Gerald Haigh, "Field Training in Human Relations for the Peace Corps," The Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 68 (1966), p. 6.

this was their first contact with a foreign culture. The trainees and group leaders got together in the evening to share experiences and their method of handling various encounters. Often, part of a session would be limited to statements of feelings. Because of anxiety and frustrations in their cross-cultural encounters, the trainees sometimes developed doubts about their ability to do the job. A few became physically and/or emotionally ill, some left the Peace Corps at this point; however, over the weeks the majority gained in self-awareness and, in turn, self confidence. The success of this part of the training program was evidenced by the fact that ninety-five percent of the volunteers, contacted overseas a year later, reported the human relations segment was the most effective portion of the entire training program.

In a minimally structured situation, in confrontation with someone from another culture with different values and who probably does not speak your language, one must depend on all his senses to cope successfully with the situation. The frustration and doubts about one's ability to cope and the intensity with which one must concentrate on non-verbal cues, these are the tension builders. The cumulative fatigue, resulting from long exposure in an unfamiliar environment,

and which fails to abate with sleep, produces great emotional stress which has come to be called "culture shock."

Bock attempts to give us another perspective of culture shock:

> . . . confrontation with another society is the best way to learn about alien modes of life or to gain perspective on one's own culture.
>
> Culture shock is not valued for its own sake. Its value lies in the liberation and understanding that come from such an experience: the full realization that strange customs are not quaint or meaningless to those who practice them; that other languages are not gibberish or merely awkward substitutes for English; and that other perceptions of reality are just as valid to those who live according to them as our own belief and value system are to us.[21]

Arensberg and Niehoff provide this composite of culture shock symptoms:

> A ludicrous tendency to raise one's voice to a shout when one finds a foreigner unable to understand English . . . numb fatigue, anger against the strangers confronting one, or a frenzied retreat into the familiar, a feeling of helplessness, and a desire for company of one's own kind.

They then go on to point out that some people are less susceptible to culture shock than others:

> Some people seem to have more tolerance and less anxiety than others when faced with new and unusual situations. They may have had more ex-

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[21]Philip K. Bock (ed.), Culture Shock. (Alfred Knoph, 1970), p. xi.

> posure to cultural differences in early years. A variety of cultural environments in childhood --travel, learning another language, even studying other ways through books--are some of the experiences that can help to develop the adaptability that will build cultural bridges.[22]

Fuchs gives this explanation as to why culture shock manifests itself in individuals immersed in a foreign culture:

> The shock and forced readjustment which occur are a result of the strain of heightened attention to strange cues and signs in an unfamiliar environment. The reaction is compounded by frustration, exasperation, and irritation.[23]

It is Fuchs' opinion that the reason some people are more tolerant and less anxious in new and unusual situations is a matter of temperament and greater exposure and familiarity with a variety of situations or life ways.

Speaking of training programs in general, Wight feels that most focus on language study and the general historical and cultural aspects of the intended host

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[22]Conrad Arensberg and Arthur Niehoff, Introducing Social Change: A Manual for Community Development, 2nd Ed., (Aldine Atherton, 1971), p. 153.

[23]Estelle Fuchs, "Culture Shock," Education and the Urban Crisis, ed. Roger Woock (International Textbook Company, 1970), p. 154.

country. "Such an approach ignores the person supposedly being trained, however: his own cultural biases, values, beliefs, attitudes, behavior, and expectations (which he too often assumes are logical and universal), and the problems these might create for him in another culture."[24]

In discussing the Peace Corps volunteer and his training program, Wight feels it essential that " . . . the trainee must be prepared to be self-sufficient, to define his own goals, to seek his own opportunities, to assess and respond to the given situation, and to solve his own problems in the new situation."[25]

Both Fuchs and Wight appear to suggest that the strength of one's coping mechanism is dependent on the individual's acceptance of self. Only in the security of self-acceptance can one begin to deal with others, be they of one's own or another culture.

Having presented some of the personal practices used in business and government agencies, let us examine some of the procedures used in selecting and preparing teachers for living and working in an alien culture.

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[24]Albert R. Wight, Experimental Cross-Cultural Training. (Estes Park, Colorado: Center for Research and Education, 1970), p. 1.

[25]Ibid., p. 3.

Culture Shock and the Displaced Teacher

Culture shock has only recently begun to appear in the educational literature and in a new context. Since the move to correct racial imbalance in the public schools, many communities have not only moved children from one school to another but, in many instances, the teachers. Fuchs points out that this has resulted in a domestic form of culture shock, particularly among the teachers.[26] The Caucasian teacher who elects to teach in the predominantly black, inner-city school and his or her black colleague, who swaps places in a suburban predominantly white school may very well suffer culture shock.

In the summer of 1971, 158 experienced teachers in a Kentucky school district were involuntarily transferred. They were forced to move from the school in which they had been teaching to another one in the district. The shift was required to establish a black-white teacher ratio that would be comparable to the black-white ratio in the entire school system.

Kron used this occasion to undertake a pioneer study with a two-fold purpose: (1) to ascertain whether white teachers from "middle-class" suburban schools suffer culture shock when transferred to "inner-city" schools;

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[26]Fuchs, op. cit.

and, if so, (2) to determine how these teachers cope with culture shock following their transfer. The secondary purposes were: (1) to try to discover how culture shock might be minimized; and (2) to make specific recommendations to help future teachers overcome this shock with greater speed and ease.[27]

The research study was designed to test seventeen hypotheses concerning whether selected teachers experienced culture shock, and, if so, what effects it had on them. The respondents were twenty-eight white elementary teachers involved in the involuntary transfer from suburban, predominantly white schools.

The results of this study indicated that at least twenty-six of the twenty-eight teachers experienced culture shock, nineteen of these cases were classified as severe. The older teachers (mean age of group was 38.1) experienced the most severe culture shock.

As a result of his research, Kron offers the following suggestions for minimizing culture shock:

1. Attempt to recruit volunteer teachers for inner-city teaching positions.

2. Attempts should be made to acquaint the transfer teacher fully with the meaning and characteristics of culture shock.

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[27]Kenneth Kron, Culture Shock and the Transfer Teacher. Bureau of School Service Bulletin, XLV, No. 2, (College of Education, University of Kentucky, December 1972), p. 5.

3. Conduct workshops and other training sessions to acquaint the transfer teachers with information about inner-city schools and inner-city students.

4. Someone should be assigned to direct and/or coordinate the transfer of the teachers--especially when large numbers are involved.

5. The relocated teacher should be encouraged to make preplacement visits to their newly assigned schools.

6. Transfer teachers making satisfactory adjustment should be encouraged to share their successes with others.[28]

It is the researcher's opinion that Kron's suggestions for minimizing culture shock are valid but incomplete. He has failed to grasp the most important revelation in his data. Acquainting teachers with the meaning and characteristics of culture shock is not a prescription for minimizing or avoiding it. The question that begs answering is, why did twenty-six of the twenty-eight transfer teachers suffer culture shock. Obviously, because they were unequipped to cope with the cultural and environmental change. This being the case, Kron needs to add one more suggestion to his list. Transfer teachers need to be selected on the basis of their adaptability, interaction skills and receptivity to cross-cultural strength training. The latter to be a part of the pre- and in-service workshops and training

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[28]Ibid., pp. 51, 55.

sessions mentioned in Kron's list of suggestions for minimizing culture shock.

It is clear from Kron's study that the transferred teachers had little understanding of the culture of the black students in their newly assigned inner-city schools. Kron's interviews with the teachers brought out the fact that many of them expected the inner-city students to act and respond exactly as their former students in the suburbs. It is patently clear that if teachers suffered an adjustment problem of this magnitude when only their working environment was altered, the culture shock might well be totally devastating for the individual who is both working and living in a cultural setting totally alien to his/her own.

Kron raises a number of questions in regard to the implications of his study, the two most important, in my judgment, are: (1) how can the best teachers be selected for transfer; and (2) what kinds of pre- or in-service programs are needed for orienting new teachers? This study is limited to the first of these questions as it applies to selecting teachers for living and working in a culture alien to their own.

Teacher Selection and Adjustment to Working Overseas

In looking to the question of selecting those teachers best qualified for living and working in an alien

culture, a number of factors must be taken into consideration. These fall into two broad categories: the first deals with the characteristics of the overseas environment in which the teacher would be required to live and work; the second deals with the personal and professional background of the teacher. The extent of success one has in teacher selection will depend on the degree of congruency that exists, or can be developed, between these two broad areas.

Apart from the physical, economic and climatic aspects of the overseas environment, the most important consideration is the people and their culture. Using the definition of E.B. Taylor, who is said to have introduced the term and the concept:

> Culture or civilization, taken in its wide ethnographic sense, is the complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.[29]

The significance of culture in relation to adjustment to a new environment was clearly illustrated by Kron's study. The following additional examples taken from literature illustrate environmental adjustment problems faced by the teacher working overseas.

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[29]Edward B. Taylor, Origins of Culture, (New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1971), p. 1.

The American teachers who contracted to teach for the TEA Program (Teachers for East Africa) were faced with an interesting and often frustrating set of circumstances. For example, the American teacher who went to teach in Uganda, formerly a British colony, found both the native African trained by the British and the colonial British teachers extremely reserved and seemingly cold in their relationships. The host teachers were critical of the Americans' "sloppy" spoken English and their failure to hold their students to rigid rules of etiquette. The sports and social clubs, open only to Europeans, were initially closed to American membership.

Butts points out that this example illustrates a point that has been found valid not only in British but also in formerly held French and Italian colonies. In those countries, mainly in Africa, which were formerly colonies of European powers, the indigenous population has adopted a great many of the cultural traits and values of their former colonizers. This includes language, which even today very often serves as the official language of the government.[30] In these new

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[30]R. Freeman Butts, American Education in International Development (Harper and Row, 1963).

African nations, many of whom are less than thirty years old, the American teacher frequently has two alien cultures to adjust to: that of the native African and that of his former colonial master.

Textor, in his analysis of the Peace Corps, also reflects on the "third culture" problem. He points out that many assignments require that the volunteer concentrate on learning two new languages and cultures. This is due to the volunteer's need to deal with the political and administrative elite of the host country, who reflect the European language and culture, in addition to his or her primary responsibility of working with the native population in the context of their culture and language.[31]

Moltram, writing in The Art of Overseasmanship, speaks about the culture traits of Asians and cautions the recruiter responsible for staffing in Asia that there are three points to remember:

> 1. It is highly desirable to employ selection techniques that will winnow out persons determined to accomplish ruthlessly their limited goals.
>
> 2. By and large, selection is more important than personality retraining, which is a difficult process capable of achieving only limited results.

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[31]Robert B. Textor (ed.), Cultural Frontiers of the Peace Corps (Cambridge: MIT Press, 1966), p. 307.

> 3. Only those Americans should be sent overseas who are able to maintain amicable relationships, who are capable of achievement through selfless staff work, and who get things done quietly without any need for personal glorification.[32]

Here we see a sharp contrast between the almost stylized behavior expected in the former British colonies of Africa and the unobtrusive worker sought in Asia. These illustrations point up the importance of knowing the culture patterns of the host country and the need for carefully screening teachers to determine their potential for gaining congruency with these patterns.

It is interesting to note that Moltram takes a rather dim view of personality retraining. Given the fact that we are dealing with adult candidates, and typically a time factor of a few weeks from the time a candidate is hired until he or she must report overseas, it would appear imperative that the candidate either give evidence of the desired personality characteristics or be rejected at once.

> Technical competence, language skill and other capacities will prove ineffective and/or insufficient if rapport and communication cannot be established between the American and his foreign host . . . . The best intentions and good will may (invariably) be frustrated by

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[32]Moltram Torre, "Personality Adjustment in Overseas Service," The Art of Overseasmanship, ed. Harlow Cleveland and Gerald Mangone (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1957), p. 87.

deep rooted, profound cultural differences.[33]

Again let us turn our attention to the teacher who is seeking overseas employment and ascertain what personal and professional qualifications are essential for his or her success in a cross-cultural ambience.

Since this research is focused on the teacher candidate's personal qualifications for overseas work, it will not dwell on professional competence. Suffice to say that the hiring principal should only consider those teachers who have the personal commitment, academic preparation and classroom experience most closely matched to the philosophy, curriculum and staff requirements of the overseas school.

Myers investigated the characteristics of 127 of the least and most effective administrators serving in the developing nations under the aegis of the United States funded Cooperative Education Programs. His conclusion, in part, indicated that the personal characteristics of the administrator are more critical than any other factor in determining success. Furthermore, higher academic degrees and facility with the host countries' language are helpful only when desirable

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[33]Roger DeCrow, "Cross-Cultural Interaction Skills: A Digest of Recent Training Literature," Eric Clearinghouse for Adult Education, ED 029-159 (1966-1968), p. 1.

personal characteristics are present. These conclusions would appear equally valid for the classroom teacher since they have to do with personal qualities rather than administrative skills.[34]

Myers' conclusions reemphasize the facts uncovered in the studies done by Cleveland and Mangone, Haigh, Kron and others, and bring into focus the most critical and most evaluatively elusive factors in selecting teachers for positions overseas: those personal characteristics that can be identified as being essential to those who are best able to work and live in an environment alien to their own cultural experience.

Combs has carried out extensive studies in search of those characteristics common to successful teachers and other members of the helping professions. He discovered that good teaching is not a function of knowledge of the helping relationship. Both good and bad teachers seemed to know what a good helping relationship ought to be like. The only difference was, the bad teachers did not put this knowledge into practice. Evidence indicated that research had failed to isolate any teaching

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[34]Noel Thomas Myers, "Characteristics of Most and Least Effective International Cooperation Administration Educators Overseas," Unpublished Ed D. Dissertation, Indiana University, 1961.

method that could be clearly identified with good or bad teaching.[35] When we couple these two conclusions, it is clear that effective helping relationships cannot be identified by what the helper knows or the methods he uses.

After extensive research, Combs and his co-workers are convinced that:

> The crucial question is not 'what' method, but the 'fit' of the method, its appropriateness to the self of the helper, to his purposes, his subjects, the situation, and so forth. We now believe the important distinction between the good and poor helper with respect to methods is not a matter of his perception of methods, per se, but the authenticity of whatever methods he uses.[36]

This researcher believes that Combs' perceptual approach to understanding human interaction, the use of the "self as instrument" concept is equally valid in both intra-cultural and cross-cultural relationships.

It is Whaling's contention that when individuals of two cultures interact, they do not deal with each other directly, but with the image, which he calls the "virtual culture," that each constructs of the other. As a consequence:

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[35]Arthur Combs, et al., Florida Studies in the Helping Professions, University of Florida Monographs: Social Sciences, No. 37, (University of Florida Press, 1969).

[36]Ibid., pp. 75-76.

> . . . cross-cultural communication and effectiveness require both knowledge of how a different culture views itself and knowledge of one's own culturally determined ways of viewing the other culture . . . . The central problem in cross-cultural effectiveness is therefore defined as the need for cultures to minimize the effects of virtual cultures in dealing with each other.[37]

Whaling's contention is reinforced by Combs' statements also expressed in perceptual terms:

> . . . behavior is no more than a symptom, an expression of the dynamics of causation which lie in the perceptual field of the behavior. A given perception may produce many different behaviors.[38]
>
> In perceptual terms, behavior is understood as a consequence of two kinds of perceptions: the perceptions one has about the world and those one has about himself.[39]

In talking about culture shock and the perceptions of the individuals involved, Weinstein illustrates this point in cross-cultural terms:

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[37]Terry K. Whaling, Developing a Method of Training for Cross-Cultural Effectiveness, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation School of Education, University of Massachusetts, 1973, p. 43.

[38]Combs, p. 11.

[39]Ibid., p. 13.

> When an individual feels threatened, two interesting things happen to his ability to perceive. One of these is an effect which psychologists call 'tunnel vision.' The field of vision becomes narrowed so that the individual perceives only the objects he regards as a threat. All else in the environment is ignored. The second effect makes the individual defend his existing position. The more threatened the person is, the more he defends his existing position.[40]

The work of Combs and Weinstein appears to follow the theory of the self-concept expressed by Kinch which postulates that:

> The actual responses of others to the individual will be important in determining how the individual will perceive himself; this perception will influence his self-conception which in turn, will guide his behavior.[41]

The individual most capable of adjusting to life in an alien culture must possess a high degree of self-esteem. The threat of which Weinstein speaks is as great as is perceived by the threatened and the degree to which the individual is able to cope will be the positive measure of self.

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[40]Gerald Weinstein, et.al., Culture Shock, (Summary of a panel discussion), Bureau of Inservice Education, Division of Teacher Education and Certification, State Education Department of New York, 1967, p. 17.

[41]John W. Kinch, "A Formalyzed Theory of the Self-Concept," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 68, No. 4, (January 1963), pp. 481-486.

This priority on self-esteem is borne out by Henkin in his study of twenty-eight American teachers working in a United States education project in Northern Nigeria. He found a high degree of correlation between teacher satisfaction scores and their self-rated effectiveness.[42]

Combs' expresses the essential value of self-esteem when he points out:

> It would be hard, indeed, to overestimate the importance of a positive view of self for effective behavior. The self is the center of a person's existence, his frame of reference for dealing with life. With a positive view of self one can dare, be open to experience, and confront the world with open arms and a quiet certainty.[43]

Those people who are open to experience and demonstrate a high tolerance for ambiguity are best able to deal with the threat of the unknown, the loss of familiar surroundings and the touchstones of perceived reality. This is the kind of existence one initially faces in an alien culture.

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[42]Willard John Henkin, "A Study of Role Conflict of Teachers in an American Overseas Technical Assistance Program and Its Relationship to Satisfaction and Effectiveness," Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1966.

[43]Arthur Combs; Donald Avila; and William Purkey, Helping Relationships (Allyn and Bacon, 1971), p. 144.

Combs speaks of those with "a toleration for ambiguity" and those in the contraposition in these terms:

> . . . such people seem to have an attitude that it is 'all right' to live with an unsolved problem. Less fulfilled persons often find the confrontation with problems that do not have immediate solutions unbearable and so may be led to adopt any solution, even a bad one, in order to solve the problem.[44]

For the overseas teacher, often the solution is resignation from their position and a hasty retreat back to the security and familiarity of the United States.

The experiential interface between the individual and an alien cultural environment involves the dynamics of challenge and threat. The resolution of these two forces and the resulting adjustment will depend on the willingness of the individual to expose him or herself to risk in opening lines of communication.

> Communication takes time. While information can be transmitted from one person to another (both verbally and non-verbally) with great speed, its comprehension is another matter. The meaning of information has to do with the individual's discovery of the relationship of new information to what is already there in his perceptual field.[45]

Gordon gives us his summation of those factors which he feels make communication in a cross-cultural

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[44] Ibid., p. 158.

[45] Ibid., p. 260.

context exceedingly difficult:

1. Timing - an immediate response is required (to a question) and one must rely on one's own culturally determined reflexes.

2. Live situations are more complex - there is more potential for ambiguity and confusion.

3. Persons out of their natural surroundings tend to be tense, defensive, even aggressive; they often do not hear or observe correctly.

4. One's auditory and visionary powers may not be focused on the right place.

5. We may not catch clues because we are not in rhythm with what is happening; the cumulative effect catches up.

6. Whether a person gets caught in a particular mis-interpretation is just a matter of chance.

7. Cumulative communication errors will eventually cut off many of the potential avenues of interaction with the people and finally restrict the American to the relatively narrow role of tourist.[46]

This catalogue of potential problems sums up the dilemma faced by the American or any foreigner in attempting to communicate with a host country national. It very graphically points up the need for a sense of confidence and a willingness to chance initial failure in attempting to establish avenues of communication and build cross-cultural bridges. Furthermore, it highlights the importance of identifying individuals with potential

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[46]Raymond L. Gordon, Initial Immersion in the Foreign Culture, (Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch College, 1968), pp. 59-60.

cross-cultural strength prior to hiring them for work in an alien culture.

Using the relationship that Combs and others have established between self-acceptance and the acceptance of others in one's own culture, this study will project this relationship to include cross-cultural acceptance.

The next chapter will discuss the development of an attitude scale to help identify those teachers who possess a strong self-image, who are accepting of others in their own culture and who demonstrate the cross-cultural strength essential for life and work overseas. These same precepts should be equally applicable in selecting personnel for overseas employment in a variety of other occupations.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this study, the researcher contends that teachers who are best able to work and live in an alien environment possess such personal characteristics as a high degree of self-esteem, an openness to new experiences, sensitivity to the needs of others and identification with people of their own and other cultures. This chapter will deal with the selection and modification of an instrument to measure these personal characteristics and the procedures used in its evaluation.

Selecting the Test Instrument

Sensitivity, openness, self-esteem and other personal characteristics are revealed in a number of direct ways through the actions of the individual. However, gathering data by direct observation would prove impractical from a number of standpoints quite apart from the time factor involved. A viable alternative would be the use of a self-administered paper and pencil attitude scale and biographical questionnaire which could be completed by the teacher candidate without the physical presence of the school administrative officer. On the basis of the candidate's responses to the written instrument, the subsequent personal in-

terview could be focused so as to include a line of follow-up questions that would hopefully clarify the candidate's personal qualifications for a position at an overseas post. Those teachers who did not reveal sufficient strength on the attitude scale and questionnaire to indicate the advisability of a follow-up interview could at that time be dropped from the list of prospective candidates.

The use of self-report as an information-gathering technique is not without its limitations. Webb and Salancki speak of an attitude as a learned disposition to respond in a consistent manner towards the objects of the attitude.[47] Thus using an attitude scale as a method of self-reporting reflects the inherent bias of the respondent. However, in terms of the prospective overseas teacher, it is this very bias that will serve as an indicator of his or her ability to adjust to an alien culture.

Other factors which may reduce the validity of the self-report are such things as the respondent's awareness of being tested and the possibility of role playing. Too, tendencies to endorse socially desirable

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[47]Eugene J. Webb and Jerry R. Salancik, "Supplementing the Self-Report in Attitude Research," Attitude Measurement, ed. Gene F. Summers (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1970), p. 318.

statements and the respondent's access to descriptive cues hidden in the body of the questions may also prove limiting factors. These and other considerations may lead to research invalidities and limit the reliability of the self-report instrument.

In searching the literature, a single study was found that dealt specifically with testing overseas Americans for cross-cultural awareness. H. Ned Seelye[48] worked to develop an objective test that hopefully would determine the approximate level of cross-cultural awareness achieved by Americans residing in Guatemala. The researcher found Seelye's objective test too parochial to be of any real diagnostic value outside of Guatemala. Furthermore, it only measured cultural awareness after a protracted residence in Guatemala and would thus have little if any predictive value for the prospective employer of teachers for other countries of the world.

Any test instrument capable of helping to identify teachers with potential cross-cultural strength must be free of bias directed toward any one culture. The instrument should be designed to probe the respondent's attitudes rather than specific knowledge of the patterns of any single culture. By first plumbing

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[48]H. Ned Seelye, "Field Notes on Cross-Cultural Testing," Language Learning, Vol. 16, No. 1-2 (1966).

the acceptance of self we gain an insight as to the degree of wholeness, inner security and estimate of worth that the individual holds of him or herself. The strength of this self-acceptance will determine the amount of risk that will be chanced in dealing with others in the same culture and ultimately in keeping with the researcher's contention, with those in other cultures. If we are to identify teachers with potential for success on overseas assignment, we must devise a scale to measure the degree of strength in each of these areas.

In an attempt to find a test instrument to measure "SOX" (acceptance of Self, acceptance of Others and X or Cross-cultural acceptance), the researcher examined a number of self-evaluation instruments designed to measure social-psychological attitudes.

The literature reflects a wide range of instruments used as measures of self-esteem. However, most of these instruments have had limited validation and the majority were used in only one study. A number of others were rejected for the purposes of this study because they could not be self-administered, were too time-consuming or required cumbersome scoring methods.

Tests requiring q-sort techniques (sorting statements into prescribed categories) were discounted since an administrator need be present. Semantic dif-

ferential scales were also considered unsuitable for this study since such scales tend to measure the meaning the respondent attaches to an object or event rather than his or her attitude toward it.

Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory[49] and Barron's Ego Strength Scale[50] are two frequently used testing instruments. Both were rejected since the respondent is not allowed any latitude in his/her degree of acceptance or rejection of each test item. Furthermore, Coopersmith's inventory was originally designed for use with grade school children. The Minnesota Muliphasic Personality Inventory,[51] another consideration, though highly touted and validated, was not designed for a general survey of personality but rather to predict psychiatric disorders. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale[52]

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[49]S. Coopersmith, The Anticedents of Self-Esteem, (San Francisco: Freeman, 1967).

[50]F. Barron, "An Ego-Strength Scale Which Predicts Response to Psychotherapy," Journal of Consulting Psychology, No. 17 (1953), pp. 327-333.

[51]Starke R. Hathaway and J. Charnley McKinley, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, (New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1942-1951).

[52]William H. Fitts, Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, (Nashville, Tennessee: Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1965).

on the other hand does measure self-concept in 90 of its 100 self-description items. This instrument, though closer to the needs of this study, was also set aside for two reasons: first, because its proliferation of fourteen scores made for rather cumbersome scoring and second, because of the excessive augmentation that would have been required to reflect measurement of acceptance of others along with cross-cultural acceptance. For the purposes of this study, where ease of administration and time limitations were important considerations, Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale[53] appeared a suitable instrument for determining acceptance of self and others. Furthermore, Berger's Scale could readily be augmented to measure the third factor--cross-cultural acceptance.

The Development of the Berger Self-Acceptance Scale

Sheerer,[54] in a study of fourteen non-directive counseling cases, attempted to find evidence to support the hypothesis that there is a positive correlation between the extent to which an individual expresses acceptance of and respect for self and the extent to which he/she expresses acceptance of and respect for others. The results of the before and after counseling

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[53]Emanuel M. Berger, "The Relation between Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 47 (1952), p. 778-782.

[54]Sheerer (see bibliography).

indicated two central facts:

> . . . the individual's evaluation of himself and his worth as a person, can be significantly altered by the therapeutic process initiated by client-centered therapy is one of these facts; the other is that the individual's evaluation of others--the degree of acceptance and respect he feels for them--is significantly related to his attitude toward himself.[55]

On the basis of her findings, Sheerer concluded that the acceptance and respect for self and the acceptance and respect for others can be objectively rated with a satisfactory degree of reliability; further, that there is a strong correlation between attitudes of acceptance and respect for self and attitudes of acceptance and respect for others.

Through a portion of a study done by Stock,[56] Sheerer's work was confirmed. However, it must be noted that seven of the same counseling cases were used in both studies.

Berger, taking note of Sheerer and Stock's clinical experience, recognized the need to test these relationships with a much larger and more varied case population. Thus, he undertook to develop a group testing instrument

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[55]Ibid.

[56]Dorothy Stock, "An Investigation into the Interrelations between the Self-Concept and Feelings Directed Toward Other Persons and Groups," Journal of Consulting Psychology, No. 13 (1949), pp. 176-180.

for the measurement of self-acceptance, the acceptance of others, and the relationship between the two.

In constructing his instrument, Berger used Sheerer's definitions of the self-accepting person and the person who is accepting of others:

> The self-accepting person is characterized by behavior guided by internalized values (rather than external pressure), 'a faith in his capacity to cope with life,' responsibility, objective acceptance of criticism, sense of self-worth, and an absence of shyness or self-conciousness.[57]

Berger's preliminary scale consisted of forty-seven statements on self-acceptance and forty on acceptance of others. The respondent's score on any given item could range from one to five (values being assigned on a continuum ranging from "true to myself" to "not at all true of myself"). An individual's score on each of the two scales (acceptance of self and acceptance of others) was his total numerical score for all items on that scale.

The preliminary scales were administered to two hundred respondents who were college students in first year sociology or psychology. An item analysis was done on the scores to determine the descriminating power of each test item. The final scales consisted of thirty-six items on self-acceptance and twenty-eight items on

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[57]Sheerer (see bibliography), pp. 170-171.

acceptance of others. These items were chosen from the preliminary scales on the basis of their descriminating power and their appropriateness in terms of Sheerer's definitions.

The final scales were administered to 315 respondents of which 216 were college students (183 day and 33 evening-session students), thirty-three prisoners, thirty-eight stutterers, seven with other speech problems, eighteen from an adult Y.M.C.A. class and three counselees.

Berger first computed the matched-half reliabilities of the scale and then applied the Spearman-Brown formula to obtain correlation between the two split-halves. The whole test reliability for the self-acceptance scale was found to range from .746 to .894 depending on the group tested. Reliability for the scale measuring acceptance of others ranged from .776 to .884.

Correlations between acceptance of self and acceptance of others was shown to be significantly greater than zero at better than the .01 level of confidence. The one exception was the Y.M.C.A. group of respondents which just missed significance at the .05 level of confidence. Of particular interest to this researcher was the fact that the correlation between

acceptance of self and acceptance of others among the college day students was .36 while among the predominantly older evening-session students the correlation was .65. Phillips[58] also found that older college students reflected a closer relationship between acceptance of self and acceptance of others.

The validity of the test was checked by having twenty of the respondents write autobiographical essays. These essays were scored for self-acceptance by four judges. The average intercorrelation of the Self-Acceptance Scale and the essay ratings was .897 thus providing further evidence of the validity of the Berger Scale.

Since considerable evidence was found to support the validity of Berger's Scale, it was concluded that the study definitely supported and strengthened the contention that there is a positive correlation between acceptance of self and acceptance of others.

Subsequent to Berger's work, Omwake[59] provided

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[58]E.L. Phillips, "Attitudes Toward Self and Others: A Brief Questionnaire Report," Journal of Consulting Psychology, No. 15 (1951), pp. 79-81.

[59]Katherine T. Omwake, "The Relation Between Acceptance of Self and Acceptance of Others Shown by Three Personality Inventories," The Journal Of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 18, No. 6 (1954), pp. 443-446.

additional support as to the validity of Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale. Her study was designed to test two hypotheses: first, that in a normal population there is a positive relationship between acceptance of self and acceptance of others and second, that there should be agreement of results among tests measuring acceptance of self and acceptance of others.

In an effort to check her hypotheses, Omwake administered three unpublished, unobtrusive self-acceptance scales to 113 college students. In addition to Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale, the test included a questionnaire on Attitudes Toward the Self and Others by Phillips[60] and the Index of Adjustment Values by Bills, Vance and McLean.[61]

The results of Omwake's administrations reflected a correlation of .73 between Berger and Phillips' Scales. Even though Bill's Scale measures self-acceptance by a different technique, it showed a correlation of .49 with the Berger Scale and .55 with Phillips'. Here we have a strong correspondence with a correlation of all three scales significant at the .01 level of confidence. The

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[60] Phillips, loc. cit.

[61] R.E. Bills; E.L. Vance; and O.S. McLean, "An Index of Adjustment and Values," Journal of Consulting Psychology, No. 15 (1951), pp. 257-261.

results supported both stated hypotheses and thus lent additional validity to the Berger Scale.

Modifying the Berger Scale

Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale is designed to measure those general factors which are believed significant to the identification of a person's acceptance of self and acceptance of others. Using Berger's Scale as the core of the evaluation process, the researcher contended that additional test items could be designed and added to reflect the respondent's reaction to situations more typically cross-cultural. The essence of the research reflected in the remainder of this study deals with the construction, administration and evaluation of such a test instrument.

Since the Berger Scale employs a five-point Likert scaling device ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree responses, the use of a similar scale seemed the most desirable for the cross-cultural instrument. This would permit the researcher to intersperse the cross-cultural test items throughout the Berger Self Acceptance Scale. Further, it would provide the means of collecting, evaluating and interpreting the results using the same techniques for both tests.

Constructing the Cross-Cultural Attitude Scale

In constructing cross-cultural attitude statements, the researcher attempted to develop items that did not reflect attitude bias for one culture over another. Efforts were also made to create a balance between those statements that reflected modal reaction to one end or the other of the attitude continuum.

In general, the researcher adhered as closely as possible to the criteria for constructing attitude statements as outlined by Edwards:[62]

1. Avoid statements that refer to the past rather than to the present.
2. Avoid statements that are factual or capable of being interpreted as factual.
3. Avoid statements that may be interpreted in more than one way.
4. Avoid statements that are irrelevant to the psychological object under consideration.
5. Avoid statements that are likely to be endorsed by almost everyone or almost no one.
6. Select statements that are believed to cover the entire range of the effective scale of interest.
7. Keep the language of the statement simple, clear and direct.
8. Statements should be short, rarely exceeding twenty words.

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[62] A.L. Edwards, Technique of Attitude Scale Construction (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957), p. 13.

9. Each statement should contain only one complete thought.

10. Statements containing universals such as all, always, none and never often introduce ambiguity and should be avoided.

11. Words such as only, just, merely, and others of a similar nature should be used with care and moderation in writing statements.

12. Whenever possible, statements should be in the form of simple sentences rather than in the form of compound or complex sentences.

13. Avoid the use of words that may not be understood by those who are to be given the completed scale.

14. Avoid the use of double negatives.

Twenty-six items were created for the cross-cultural attitude scale. Many of the cross-cultural attitude statements were developed as an outgrowth of the researcher's experience as an administrator working with American teachers in an overseas school. The American's attitudes about cleanliness, which in some instances verges on an obsession, are reflected in some of the statements. Too, the average American's tenacious clinging to the puritan ethic militates against building cross-cultural bridges and statements reflecting these attitudes are also included in the scale.

A pilot run of the cross-cultural attitude scale was made on twenty-seven respondents of an undergraduate social studies workshop.

The 26-item instrument (see Appendix A), using

a five-point Likert scale, was so constructed as to reflect a balance between those statements which the researcher expected strong agreement and those on which he expected strong disagreement. The expected responses were based on value judgments made by the researcher and reflect his observations and experience in an overseas setting. The statements were so arranged on the test sheet that a fixed response pattern was avoided.

In evaluating the results of the pilot, care was taken to insure that proper numerical values were assigned to the responses. The most desired answer on the five-point scale was assigned a value of five while the least desired answer was given a value of one. The first test item for example anticipated the most correct response to be number one (strongly agree) on the five-point scale. In evaluating this statement however, a response (circling) of one was assigned a numerical evaluation of five. If the respondent gave the most desirable response in each of the twenty-six items on the scale he/she would achieve a score of 130 (five times twenty-six).

The twenty-six statements were checked for split-half reliability (see Appendix B). In accord with Likert's suggestion:[63] "split-half reliability should be found

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[63]Rensis Likert, "The Method of Constructing an Attitude Scale," Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement, ed. Martin Fishbein (New York: John Wiley, 1967), Chap. 11.

by correlating the sum of the odd statements for each individual against the sum of the even statements." The results of the split-half analysis are reported for each respondent as well as an average for the twenty-seven respondents. The average odd score of 50.77 compared most favorably with the average even score of 50.85. The individual score differences between even and odd varied from zero to eight. Seven of the respondents had variances between five and eight while twenty had differences of four or less. Employing the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula, the estimated whole test reliability was .773.

In order to determine whether respondents reacted differently to individual statements in the same manner as they reacted differently to the test battery, the cross-cultural attitude scale was checked for internal consistency (see Appendix C). In order to use the criterion of internal consistency, approximately ten percent of the respondents with the highest total scores were compared with approximately ten percent who had the lowest possible scores. This gave an objective check on the correctness of the assigned numerical values for each test item. When an item has been assigned an inappropriate numerical value, the overall high scoring respondents will score low on the item and the overall low

scoring respondents will score high on this same item.

As a result of the check for internal consistency, items one and four were found to have negative discrimination values while items six and seventeen reflected very poor discrimination. As a result of this disclosure, these four items were reworked to remove possible ambiguities and to allow for a more clear cut reflection of attitude.

The degree of differentiation between the high and low scoring respondents, on an item by item basis, did not, on some items, show as much discrimination between the two groups as was hoped. However, the fact that all the respondents were undergraduates falling between the ages of twenty and thirty and more prone to reflecting a high degree of idealism, may well have had the effect of eliciting certain similarities of response. It was the researcher's conclusion that the test instrument measuring cross-cultural attitudes had sufficient proven merit to warrant use in conjunction with the Berger Self-Acceptance Scale. By interspersing the twenty-six cross-cultural items with Berger's Scale of thirty-six items measuring self-acceptance and twenty-eight measuring acceptance of others, a new scale of ninety items was created. This modified Berger Scale was now capable of providing three different

measures of attitude: acceptance of self, acceptance of others and cross-cultural acceptance. (See Appendix D.)

The Respondent Questionnaire

In an attempt to determine whether there were certain factors in the respondent's background that might effect his/her cross-cultural strength, a biographical questionnaire was prepared for use with the modified Berger Scale. After establishing the respondent's age, sex and marital status, the questionnaire sought answers in a number of areas relating to the respondent's childhood environment. The researcher contends that the teacher, who has been brought up in a home where English was a second language and/or where one or both of the parents retained earlier culture patterns after immigrating to the United States, and/or where the childhood home was in an ethnic neighborhood, may, as a result of this experience, be better able to adjust to life overseas.

Other questions deal with the size of the respondent's family, the number of brothers and sisters and the position of the respondent in the sibling hierarchy. Schooling, whether public or private and undergraduate living accomodations: at home or on or off campus, are other areas questioned for possible links

with cross-cultural strength.

The questionnaire seeks answers to the number of years the teacher respondent has taught, how many of these have been overseas, on how many different posts and finally, now many years at their present post. In conjunction with overseas teaching, the respondent is questioned as to fluency in the language of those countries in which he or she has taught. In total, the questionnaire contained nineteen variables for analysis.

Breakdown of the Modified Berger Self-Acceptance Scale

Attitude Scale:

Sub-test 1:	A measure of Self-Acceptance.....	36 items
Sub-test 2:	A measure of Acceptance of Others..	28 items
Sub-test 3:	A measure of Cross-Cultural Acceptance.....	26 items
	Total.....	90 items

Variables on Questionnaire:

1. Sex of the respondent:
2. Marital status?
3. Present age within a 5-year range?
4. Childhood neighborhood density?
5. Father: native born or immigrant?
6. Mother: native born or immigrant?
7. Language spoken in parents' home?
8. Ethnic or heterogenous neighborhood in childhood?
9. Number of brothers?
10. Number of sisters?
11. Rank among siblings?
12. Type of elementary schooling?
13. Type of secondary schooling?
14. Residence as undergraduate?
15. Number of years in teaching profession?

16. Number of years taught overseas?
17. Years of teaching at present school?
18. Number of overseas teaching posts?
19. Number of languages in which reasonable fluent?
20. NOTE: A 20th variable, the overseas administrator's evaluation of the respondent, was later added to the respondent's data for comparison in the statistical analysis.

Delimitations

The respondents in the study are confined to teachers under contract in two overseas schools: The American School in Japan, Tokyo, Japan and the American Grade School, Sao Paulo, Brazil. The initial study was planned to include the American School in Lugano, Switzerland. Regretably, the completed attitude scales were never returned from Switzerland thus appreciably reducing the size of the test sample. This lack of response also limited another planned dimension of the study: comparison of respondent population from three discrete geographic and cultural areas of the world.

The modified Berger Self-Acceptance Scale was administered to the American teachers by a local school official at each school site and the "Administrator's Evaluation" was completed by this same on-site administrator.

The test instruments, each consisting of ninety attitude statements and nineteen questions designed to elicit biographical information, were forwarded to each

school with specific instructions for their administration. Since the instrument was designed to be self-administered, it was requested that the adminstrator write a memo enlisting the teacher's help in completing the instrument for the purpose of furthering some research being undertaken at an American university. The memo was to be attached to a coded copy of the Scale and placed in the teacher's mailbox with a stated deadline for the completed copy to be returned.

At the top of each test instrument was a brief message from the researcher expressing appreciation to the teacher for giving some of his/her valuable time in the interest of furthering research. (see Appendix D.) Further, it was explained that the instrument would require approximately twenty minutes to complete.

In order to obtain additional information for purposes of correlation with other measures of the Scale's validity, the overseas administrator was asked to rank independently each respondent on a three-point scale. Having noted the code number on the test and the name of the teacher in whose mailbox it was placed, the administrator was asked, in his judgment did the respondent appear: 1) very well adjusted; 2) to have made a marginal adjustment; or 3) to be poorly adjusted to the overseas school and the local cultural environment.

It should be noted here that all the respondents from the American School in Japan were ranked in the "very well adjusted" category by the test administrator (William E. Ricketson, Jr.), who also happened to be the headmaster of the school.

The reason for placing all the teachers from the Japanese group in this category was explained in a letter from Ricketson which was returned with the completed test instruments:

> The deck looks stacked in that I have checked all in the first column (very well adjusted to school and community). This is done in all honesty. For the last six years or so, we have had no problems in adjustment to school or community. I like to think that a large part of the reason is our recruiting procedures. I spend quite a bit of time with candidates explaining the poor living conditions here, show them pictures of their housing, explain costs, various cultural problems, and so forth. Then on their arrival they are met at the airport, housed in a dorm near the school, fed in our cafeteria, shown housing by Japanese-speaking teachers, taught how to shop by others, and generally looked after in their first weeks here. We at the school feel a great responsibility to these new teachers and practice it. I am sure our teachers would back up this statement. Therefore, I cannot think of <u>one</u> teacher in the last few years who has had a difficult time of it here.

Ricketson's evaluation, when compared with the data obtained from some of the other variables included in the questionnaires, will be discussed in a succeeding chapter.

Although there were well over 100 native-born American teachers in the combined faculties of the two overseas schools, the researcher received but thirty-four test returns from Brazil and twenty-seven from Japan. Of the sixty-one instruments received, five from Brazil and four from Japan had to be thrown out of the sample because of irregularities. The useable Brazil instruments number twenty-nine while those from Japan number twenty-three for a total of fifty-two valid test instruments.

Using the S.P.S.S. (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) computer program, and the services of the University of Massachusetts Computer Center, the collected data was analyzed in several different ways.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was employed to compare the three sub-tests and the total scores on the Modified Berger Scale. This same formula was also used to obtain correlations of the three sub-tests with variables 15 through 19, total teaching experience, years of overseas teaching experience, years at present school, number of overseas posts, and fluency with the language at each overseas post.

Frequency distributions were obtained for all nineteen variables plus the test administrator's evaluation of the teachers. Cross tabulations were applied to each of the nineteen variables to check the frequencies

within and between the two teacher populations (Brazil and Japan). Finally, a multiple step-wise regression analysis was employed to ascertain the degree of correlation between the sub-tests on the Modified Berger Self-Acceptance Scale and the nineteen demographic variables.

The results from the computed data will be detailed and analyzed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

One of the greatest boons to today's researcher is the computer and the wide range of packaged programs which have been developed and refined to perform a variety of previously time-consuming statistical analyses. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (S.P.S.S.), mentioned at the end of the last chapter, is such a program. Apart from some initial evaluations on the pilot run of the cross-cultural attitude scale, S.P.S.S. was utilized in analyzing the major portion of the data generated in this study.

This chapter will be devoted to a tabular display and discussion of the data. Both the questionnaire, seeking demographic information, and the three sub-test scores and total score will be discussed in some detail. The inquiry will focus on evidence that helps to answer the questions that were raised in formulating this study and the hypotheses that grew out of these questions.

As pointed out earlier, of the sixty-one responses received, five from Brazil and four from Japan had to be thrown out of the sample for invalidities leaving a total of fifty-two satisfactorily completed attitude

scales. Of the twenty-nine scales received from Brazil, twenty-one were from females and eight from males while nine of the scales from Japan were completed by females and fourteen by males.

Analysis of Demographic Data

Table 1 illustrates the aforementioned data in a more detailed breakdown. It is interesting to note that the number of female respondents from Brazil more than doubled those of Japan. This may be attributed to the fact that the Brazilian teachers were largely drawn from the grade school while the Japanese teaching responsibilities mainly lay in the high school. This reflects the typical educational stereotype in which we find a preponderance of female instructors in the lower grades and the greatest concentration of male teachers in the high school.

In the succeeding pages, a number of tables of cross-tabulations have been included to compare the frequency distribution of twenty different variables among the two populations of respondents: one in Brazil and the other in Japan.

Chi Square Tests were employed on each cross-tabulation to show the differences of empirical deviation from observed frequencies. In essence, the Chi Square Test is used to determine the probability that a sample

TABLE 1

CROSSTABULATION OF SEX OF TEACHER RESPONDENT BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Female	21	9	30
Row per cent	70.0	30.0	57.7
Column per cent	72.4	39.1	
Total per cent	40.4	17.3	
Male	8	14	22
Row per cent	36.4	63.6	42.3
Column per cent	27.6	60.9	
Total per cent	15.4	26.9	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

distribution is the result of drawing from a population with a given theoretically determined distribution. If the difference between the theoretically predicted frequencies and the observed frequencies tend to be large Chi Square (X^2) will be large and the level of significance will be low. Should the reverse be true, if the difference between the theoretically predicted and observed frequencies tends to be small, then the level of significance will be high. Significance value for this study as in most social science research should be at a level of .05 or better.

In comparing the respondent teachers in Brazil with those in Japan, on the basis of twenty variables, the Chi Square Test showed that there was little significant difference between the two teacher populations. Only four of the variables showed some significant difference; however, these results are misleading as will be pointed out later.

Among the Tokyo respondents (see Table 2), 65.2 percent were married and 26.1 percent were single while the pattern in Brazil reflected 72.4 percent married and 20.7 percent single. Anyone familiar with the more typical faculties of overseas American schools is immediately struck by the unusually high percentage of married teachers in the two schools used in this study.

TABLE 2

CROSSTABULATION OF TEACHER RESPONDENT'S MARITAL STATUS BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Single	6	6	12
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	23.1
Column per cent	20.7	26.1	
Total per cent	11.5	11.5	
Married	21	15	36
Row per cent	58.3	41.7	69.2
Column per cent	72.4	65.2	
Total per cent	40.4	28.8	
Divorced	1	2	3
Row per cent	33.3	66.7	5.8
Column per cent	3.4	8.7	
Total per cent	1.9	3.8	
Widowed	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9		
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

More often than not, the overseas American school derives the major portion of its operating budget from tuition, lacks any kind of endowment and typically reflects a financial picture dictated by the economy of the host country. Under these circumstances, the salary scales are understandably low and rather unattractive to the older more experienced classroom teacher. Since both the American Schools in Tokyo and Sao Paulo are long established institutions, one may infer that they enjoy greater financial stability than many overseas schools and that the high percentage of married faculty may be indicative of a better than average salary schedule.

Undoubtedly, the age of the faculty has some bearing on the number of married teachers, as can be seen by the statistics shown in Table 3. One is struck by the fact that in the combined schools only one teacher fell in the 20-24 age range while there were sixteen teachers out of the fifty-two respondents who were over 40. The greatest number (17) of the teachers fell in the 30-34 year old range. These facts would tend to lend further support to the suggested stability of the two schools and their attraction for the older, married, more experienced teacher.

Table 4, showing the number of years of teaching experience displayed by the two faculties of respondents,

TABLE 3

CROSSTABULATION OF AGE OF TEACHER RESPONDENTS
BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Age 20-24	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Age 25-29	9	7	16
Row per cent	56.3	43.8	30.8
Column per cent	31.0	30.4	
Total per cent	17.3	13.5	
Age 30-34	8	9	17
Row per cent	47.1	52.9	32.7
Column per cent	27.6	39.1	
Total per cent	15.4	17.3	
Age 35-39	2	0	2
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	3.8
Column per cent	6.9	0.0	
Total per cent	3.8	0.0	
Age 40 and over	9	7	16
Row per cent	56.3	43.8	30.8
Column per cent	31.0	30.4	
Total per cent	17.3	13.5	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 4

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT'S YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
One (1) Year	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Two (2) Years	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	
Three (3) Years	2	0	2
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	3.8
Column per cent	6.9	0.0	
Total per cent	3.8	0.0	
Four (4) Years	4	2	6
Row per cent	66.7	33.3	11.5
Column per cent	13.8	8.7	
Total per cent	7.7	3.8	
Five (5) Years	2	0	2
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	
Column per cent	6.9	0.0	
Total per cent	3.8	0.0	
Six (6) Years	3	2	5
Row per cent	60.0	40.0	9.6
Column per cent	10.3	8.7	
Total per cent	5.8	3.8	

TABLE 4--Continued

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Seven (7) Years	2	2	4
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	7.7
Column per cent	6.9	8.7	
Total per cent	3.8	3.8	
Eight (8) Years	4	5	9
Row per cent	44.4	55.6	17.3
Column per cent	13.8	21.7	
Total per cent	7.7	9.6	
Nine (9) Years	1	2	3
Row per cent	33.3	66.7	5.8
Column per cent	3.4	8.7	
Total per cent	1.9	3.8	
Ten (10) Years	3	2	5
Row per cent	60.0	40.0	
Column per cent	10.3	8.7	
Total per cent	5.8	3.8	
Eleven (11) Years	1	2	3
Row per cent	33.3	66.7	5.8
Column per cent	3.4	8.7	
Total per cent	1.9	3.8	
Twelve (12) Years	1	1	2
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	3.8
Column per cent	3.4	4.3	
Total per cent	1.9	1.9	
Thirteen (13) Years	1	1	2
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	3.8
Column per cent	3.4	4.3	
Total per cent	1.9	1.9	

TABLE 4--Continued

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Fifteen (15) Years	2	0	2
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	3.8
Column per cent	6.9	0.0	
Total per cent	3.8	0.0	
Seventeen (17) Years	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	
Eighteen (18) Years	1	1	2
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	3.8
Column per cent	3.4	4.3	
Total per cent	1.9	1.9	
Nineteen (19) Years	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	
Twenty-Seven Years	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

has an amazing spread of twenty-seven years. Again, the atypical with but one person in each of the first and second year teaching categories and nine teachers, the largest percentage (17.3 percent) with eight years of teaching experience. Both sets of respondents had seven teachers each of whom had eleven or more years in the classroom. This seasoned group of faculty respondents lends additional credence to the contended financial stability of the two schools. A school with a limited budget, usually cannot manage the salary demanded of the teacher with many years of classroom experience. When a large percentage of the faculty place on the upper end of the salary scale, finances are severely strained when one considers the many other demands made on the operating budget.

When we examine the data in Table 5, reflecting the respondent's years of teaching overseas, we once again see an unusual spread of figures ranging from one to twenty-five years. Ten teachers, the largest group tabulated (19.2 percent), were in their second year of overseas teaching with the second and third largest groups, measuring nine and eight respondents, in their third and fourth years, respectively. If one reflects on the data supplied in Tables 4 and 5, one can conclude that most of the respondents gained one or more years of classroom experience before going overseas.

TABLE 5

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT'S YEARS OF TEACHING OVERSEAS BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
One Year	4	2	6
Row per cent	66.7	33.3	11.5
Column per cent	13.8	8.7	
Total per cent	7.7	3.8	
Two Years	5	5	10
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	19.2
Column per cent	17.2	21.7	
Total per cent	9.6	9.6	
Three Years	5	4	9
Row per cent	55.6	44.4	17.3
Column per cent	17.2	17.4	
Total per cent	9.6	7.7	
Four Years	6	2	8
Row per cent	75.0	25.0	15.4
Column per cent	20.7	8.7	
Total per cent	11.5	3.8	
Five Years	3	3	6
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	11.5
Column per cent	10.3	13.0	
Total per cent	5.8	5.8	
Six Years	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	
Eight Years	2	4	6
Row per cent	33.3	66.7	11.5
Column per cent	6.9	17.4	
Total per cent	3.8	7.7	

TABLE 5--Continued

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Ten Years	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Eleven Years	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Fifteen Years	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Sixteen Years	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	
Seventeen Years	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	
Twenty-five Years	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

Table 6 provides crosstabulation on the number of years the respondents have been at their present schools. Again, we see a wide spread ranging from one to twenty-five years. As might be expected, the greatest number of teachers (16) were in their second year at their present school--this consituted 30.8 percent of the respondent population. Forty-eight percent of the teachers (25) were in their first or second year of teaching at their present school. These figures are in keeping with the expected faculty turnover since the majority of overseas American schools hire their faculty on a two-year contract.

When we look at Table 7, we obtain a picture of the number of overseas teaching posts, including the present assignment, held by the respondents. As might be expected, the majority of the teachers (46) were teaching at their first overseas post. Only five respondents were currently teaching at their second overseas school, none at a third school and one only at her fourth overseas school.

Taking the category representing the largest percentage of respondents in each of the first seven tables, one gains a composite picture of the overseas teacher in this study. Based on the limited sample and the collected data, the overseas teacher is a married

TABLE 6

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT'S YEARS OF TEACHING AT PRESENT SCHOOL BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
One Year	7	2	9
Row per cent	77.8	22.2	17.3
Column per cent	24.1	8.7	
Total per cent	13.5	3.8	
Two Years	8	8	16
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	30.8
Column per cent	27.6	34.8	
Total per cent	15.4	15.4	
Three Years	3	5	8
Row per cent	37.5	62.5	15.4
Column per cent	10.3	21.7	
Total per cent	5.8	9.6	
Four Years	4	1	5
Row per cent	80.0	20.0	9.6
Column per cent	13.8	4.3	
Total per cent	7.7	1.9	
Five Years	2	3	5
Row per cent	40.0	60.0	9.6
Column per cent	6.9	13.0	
Total per cent	3.8	5.8	
Six Years	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	

TABLE 6--Continued

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Eight Years	1	2	3
Row per cent	33.3	66.7	5.8
Column per cent	3.4	8.7	
Total per cent	1.9	3.8	
Ten Years	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Eleven Years	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Fifteen Years	1	1	2
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	3.8
Column per cent	3.4	4.3	
Total per cent	1.9	1.9	
Twenty-five Years	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 7

CROSSTABULATION OF NUMBER OF RESPONDENT OVERSEAS TEACHING POSTS BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE CURRENTLY EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
One (1)	25	21	46
Row per cent	54.3	45.7	88.5
Column per cent	86.2	91.3	
Total per cent	48.1	40.4	
Two (2)	3	2	5
Row per cent	60.0	40.0	9.6
Column per cent	10.3	8.7	
Total per cent	5.8	3.8	
Four (4)	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

female between the ages of thirty and thirty-four. She has eight years of teaching experience, and is currently completing her second year of teaching at her first overseas school. According to Table 8, our overseas teacher speaks one foreign language other than English and more than likely it is the language of the country in which she is currently teaching.

It should be noted (Table 8) that seventeen of the respondents (32.7 percent) speak no second language with any degree of fluency. The implications reflected in this deficiency, in terms of building cross-cultural bridges and making a satisfactory adjustment to life overseas, will be discussed in the next chapter.

Since it was hypothesized that family, childhood environment and schooling had some effect on cross-cultural adjustment, several of these variables were examined through the respondent questionnaire.

One of the factors which effects early childhood development is environment. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they were reared in a rural, suburban or urban setting. This was done in the hope that population density and its effect on the individual's childhood might prove a contributing factor in self-acceptance and acceptance of others in one's own and other cultures.

TABLE 8

CROSSTABULATION OF NUMBER OF LANGUAGES OTHER THAN ENGLISH SPOKEN BY RESPONDENT BY THE LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
No Other	4	13	17
Row per cent	23.5	76.5	32.7
Column per cent	13.8	56.5	
Total per cent	7.7	25.0	
One Other	11	10	21
Row per cent	52.4	47.6	40.4
Column per cent	37.9	43.5	
Total per cent	21.2	19.2	
Two Other	11	0	11
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	21.2
Column per cent	37.9	0.0	
Total per cent	21.2	0.0	
Three Other	2	0	2
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	3.8
Column per cent	6.9	0.0	
Total per cent	3.8	0.0	
Four Other	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

Table 9 is a crosstabulation of the respondents in terms of their childhood geographic environment. As might be expected, the number raised in a suburban setting (24) far exceeded the number (12) who were brought up in a rural area. Those raised in an urban environment number fifteen. Comparing the two population samples, we note that 51.7 percent of the Brazilian respondents were raised in the suburbs as compared to 39.1 percent for the Japanese.

Tables 10 and 11 reflect crosstabulations for the birthplace of the respondent's father and mother respectively. Six, representing 11.5 percent of the sample, had fathers who had immigrated to the United States. The figures were even smaller for the distaff side with but three of the respondents (5.8 percent) with immigrant mothers.

In only one instance was a respondent reared in an environment where the parents spoke a language other than English within their home. Crosstabulations on this data are shown in Table 12.

It has been hypothesized that being brought up in an ethnic neighborhood has some influence on the teacher's ability to adjust to life in an alien culture. The crosstabulations in Table 13 indicate that sixteen (30.8 percent) of the teachers sampled lived in an ethnic

TABLE 9

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT'S CHILDHOOD GEOGRAPHIC ENVIRONMENT BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE CURRENTLY EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Rural	5	7	12
Row per cent	41.7	58.3	23.1
Column per cent	17.2	30.4	
Total per cent	9.6	13.5	
Suburban	15	9	24
Row per cent	62.5	37.5	46.2
Column per cent	51.7	39.1	
Total per cent	28.8	17.3	
Urban	9	6	15
Row per cent	60.0	40.0	28.8
Column per cent	31.0	26.1	
Total per cent	17.3	11.5	
Combination	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 10

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT FATHER'S BIRTHPLACE BY LOCATION OF RESPONDENT'S SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
United States Born	24	22	46
Row per cent	52.2	47.8	88.5
Column per cent	82.8	95.7	
Total per cent	46.2	42.3	
Immigrated to U.S.	5	1	6
Row per cent	83.3	16.7	11.5
Column per cent	17.2	4.3	
Total per cent	9.6	1.9	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 11

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT MOTHER'S BIRTHPLACE BY LOCATION OF RESPONDENT'S SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
United States Born	26	23	49
Row per cent	53.1	46.9	94.2
Column per cent	89.7	100.0	
Total per cent	50.0	44.2	
Immigrated to U.S.	3	0	3
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	5.8
Column per cent	10.3	0.0	
Total per cent	5.8	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 12

CROSSTABULATION OF LANGUAGE SPOKEN IN THE HOME OF RESPONDENT'S PARENTS BY LOCATION OF RESPONDENT'S SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
English	28	23	51
Row per cent	54.9	45.1	98.1
Column per cent	96.6	100.0	
Total per cent	53.8	44.2	
Other Than English	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 13

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT'S NEIGHBORHOOD ENVIRONMENT BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Ethnic	8	8	16
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	30.8
Column per cent	27.6	34.8	
Total per cent	15.4	15.4	
Heterogeneous	20	15	35
Row per cent	57.1	42.9	67.3
Column per cent	69.0	65.2	
Total per cent	38.5	28.8	
Both	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

neighborhood during all or most of their childhood.

The next tables (Tables 14 and 15) reflect the number of brothers and sisters respectively in the respondent's family. Six of the respondents from Brazil and three from Japan had no brothers or sisters. This information is not shown on the crosstabulations.

The position of a child in the rank order of siblings may well have some influence on his childhood development and subsequent adjustment to self and others. The respondents rank order among the children in his family is crosstabulated in Table 16. It is interesting to note that twenty-eight (53.8 percent) of the teacher respondents are the oldest of the children in their respective families.

The next two crosstabulations (Tables 17 and 18) give a picture of the type of school (public, parochial or other private) attended by the respondent at the elementary and secondary levels respectively. Seventy-one percent of the teachers attended public elementary schools and seventy-five percent went to public high schools.

Table 19, the last of the tables dealing with the respondent's demographic data, looks at the teacher's undergraduate college residence. Twenty-five of the fifty-two respondents lived on campus as undergraduates while twelve lived at home and commuted to college. Ten

TABLE 14

CROSSTABULATION OF NUMBER OF BROTHERS IN RESPONDENT'S FAMILY BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
None	10	9	19
Row per cent	52.6	47.4	36.5
Column per cent	34.5	39.1	
Total per cent	19.2	17.3	
One	11	8	19
Row per cent	57.9	42.1	36.5
Column per cent	37.9	34.8	
Total per cent	21.2	15.4	
Two	5	3	8
Row per cent	62.5	37.5	15.4
Column per cent	17.2	13.0	
Total per cent	9.6	5.8	
Three	2	3	8
Row per cent	40.0	60.0	9.6
Column per cent	6.9	13.0	
Total per cent	3.8	5.8	
Four	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 15

CROSSTABULATION OF NUMBER OF SISTERS IN RESPONDENT'S FAMILY BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
None	14	9	23
Row per cent	60.9	39.1	44.2
Column per cent	48.3	39.1	
Total per cent	26.9	17.3	
One	11	9	20
Row per cent	55.0	45.0	38.5
Column per cent	37.9	39.1	
Total per cent	21.2	17.3	
Two	3	4	7
Row per cent	42.9	57.1	13.5
Column per cent	10.3	17.4	
Total per cent	5.8	7.7	
Three	1	0	1
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	1.9
Column per cent	3.4	0.0	
Total per cent	1.9	0.0	
Four	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 16

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT'S RANK ORDER AMONG FAMILY SIBLINGS BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
First Child	17	11	28
Row per cent	60.7	39.3	53.8
Column per cent	58.6	47.8	
Total per cent	32.7	21.2	
Second Child	7	6	13
Row per cent	53.8	46.2	25.0
Column per cent	24.1	26.1	
Total per cent	13.5	11.5	
Third Child	4	2	6
Row per cent	66.7	33.3	11.5
Column per cent	13.8	8.7	
Total per cent	7.7	3.8	
Fourth Child	0	2	2
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	3.8
Column per cent	0.0	8.7	
Total per cent	0.0	3.8	
Fifth Child	1	2	3
Row per cent	33.3	66.7	5.8
Column per cent	3.4	8.7	
Total per cent	1.9	3.8	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 17

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT'S ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TYPE BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Public	20	17	37
Row per cent	54.1	45.9	71.2
Column per cent	69.0	73.9	
Total per cent	38.5	32.7	
Parochial	4	4	8
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	15.4
Column per cent	13.8	17.4	
Total per cent	7.7	7.7	
Other Private	2	0	2
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	3.8
Column per cent	6.9	0.0	
Total per cent	3.8	0.0	
Public and Private	3	2	5
Row per cent	60.0	40.0	9.6
Column per cent	10.3	8.7	
Total per cent	5.8	3.8	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 18

CROSSTABULATION OF RESPONDENT'S SECONDARY SCHOOL TYPE BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Public	23	16	39
Row per cent	59.0	41.0	75.0
Column per cent	79.3	69.6	
Total per cent	44.2	30.8	
Parochial	4	5	9
Row per cent	44.4	55.6	17.3
Column per cent	13.8	21.7	
Total per cent	7.7	9.6	
Other Private	2	1	3
Row per cent	66.7	33.3	5.8
Column per cent	6.9	4.3	
Total per cent	3.8	1.9	
Public and Private	0	1	1
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	1.9
Column per cent	0.0	4.3	
Total per cent	0.0	1.9	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

TABLE 19

CROSSTABULATION OF THE LOCATION OF THE RESPONDENT'S UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE RESIDENCE BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
At Home	10	2	12
Row per cent	83.3	16.7	23.1
Column per cent	34.5	8.7	
Total per cent	19.2	3.8	
On Campus	14	11	25
Row per cent	56.0	44.0	48.1
Column per cent	48.3	47.8	
Total per cent	26.9	21.2	
Off Campus	0	5	5
Row per cent	0.0	100.0	9.6
Column per cent	0.0	21.7	
Total per cent	0.0	9.6	
Both On and Off Campus	5	5	10
Row per cent	50.0	50.0	19.2
Column per cent	17.2	21.7	
Total per cent	9.6	9.6	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

of the teachers (19.2 percent) lived in more than one resident situation during their four undergraduate years.

The last of the crosstabulations (Table 20) shows a breakdown of the test administrator's evaluation of the teacher respondent's adjustment to living and working in an alien culture. It should be noted, as pointed out earlier, that the teachers working in Japan were all judged by the test administrator to be extremely well adjusted to living and working in that country. This fact provided a much higher proportion (67.3 percent) of culturally adjusted teachers than had been anticipated.

The four crosstabulations in which the Chi Square Test revealed a significant difference between the teacher respondents in Brazil and Japan respectively, are listed below.

Significant Differences Between Teacher Populations

Variable	Chi Square Value	Freedom	Level of Significance
Table 1	4.53780*	1 degree	.037
Table 8	18.36452	4 degrees	.001
Table 19	10.13597	3 degrees	.018
Table 20	20.03153	2 degrees	.000

*corrected X^2

In Table 1, a significant difference based on sex would be expected between the two populations since the

TABLE 20

CROSSTABULATION OF THE TEST ADMINISTRATOR'S EVALUATION OF THE RESPONDENT BY LOCATION OF SCHOOL WHERE EMPLOYED

	Brazil	Japan	Total
Well Adjusted	12	23	35
Row per cent	34.3	65.7	67.3
Column per cent	41.4	100.0	
Total per cent	23.1	44.2	
Marginal Adjustment	13	0	13
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	25.0
Column per cent	44.8	0.0	
Total per cent	25.0	0.0	
Poorly Adjusted	4	0	4
Row per cent	100.0	0.0	7.7
Column per cent	13.8	0.0	
Total per cent	7.7	0.0	
Column Total	29	23	52
Column Per Cent	55.8	44.2	100.0

Brazilian group of teachers was 72.4 percent female and the Japanese group was 60.9 percent male.

The significant difference between the populations in Table 8 (the number of languages other than English spoken by the respondent) is certainly in part explained by the language differences of the host countries. Since the language of Brazil is Portuguese, and many teachers have had training in one of the Romance languages (developed from Latin), learning to speak it would undoubtedly prove easier for one oriented to an eastern culture than learning an oriental language such as Japanese. Thirteen (56.5 percent) of those teaching in Japan spoke no language other than English while this was true of but four teachers (13.8 percent) working in Brazil.

The location of the respondent's undergraduate living accomodations is detailed in Table 19. The propensity for living at home among the predominant female Brazilian population as opposed to the more mobile teachers in the Japanese group helps to explain the significance of these population differences.

It is very clear as to why there is a high level of significance between the two teacher populations detailed in Table 20 (test administrator's evaluation of the respondents). Since the test administrator in Japan

rated all the respondents as "very-well adjusted to the school and local cultural environment," the difference between groups had to be high.

Of the differences between the two respondent populations, in terms of the four variables that gave significant Chi Squares, only one, the administrator's evaluation, has some significance in the study. Apart from this one subjective variable, the analysis of the demographic information provided by the respondents revealed no striking differences between the two teacher populations.

Statistics Based on the Test Results

Now that the general demographic characteristics of the respondent population have been established, an examination of data relevant to the test instrument will be discussed in some detail.

Table 21 shows a breakdown of data for the attitude test including a comparison of the mean scores and standard deviation for each of the three sub-tests and the total score. In looking for evidence of the compatability of the newly created cross-cultural attitude scale with that of the two sub-tests in Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale, the mathematical similarity of the standard deviation scores for the cross-cultural and acceptance of others scales should be noted. The

TABLE 21

ATTITUDE SCALE SCORING DATA FOR TOTAL RESPONDENT POPULATION

Sub Test	Number of Cases	Possible Score	Respondent's Score Range	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Self-Acceptance	52	180	101-176	149.02	16.84
Acceptance of Others	52	140	84-128	110.23	11.88
Cross-Cultural Acceptance	52	130	82-126	108.62	10.88
Total Score	52	450	289-418	367.87	30.90

variability of the respondent's scores on these two sub-tests is similar.

In Table 22, a comparison is made between the Brazilian test administrator's evaluation of the individual respondent's adjustment to life and work in an alien culture and the discriminating power reflected in the group scores on the attitude scales.

The test administrator in Brazil placed twelve of teachers in the very-well adjusted category, thirteen in the marginally-adjusted group and four, whom he judged to be poorly adjusted to life and work in Brazil, were placed in the third category. The mean scores on the sub-tests and the total test scores for these three groups provide some interesting comparisons and lend further support to the discriminating power of the cross-cultural attitude scale.

Moving from the best adjusted (Group 1) to the least well adjusted (Group 3), the mean scores on the self-acceptance scale and on the total instrument score decrease as expected. On the other two sets of means, acceptance of others and cross-cultural acceptance, the scores for the marginally adjusted are higher than those of the very-well adjusted respondents. The decline in mean scores, between Group 2 and 3, for the cross-cultural scale and the total test scores, was noteworthy.

TABLE 22

ATTITUDE SCALE SCORING DATA FOR RESPONDENTS FROM BRAZIL AS COMPARED TO EVALUATION BY TEST ADMINISTRATOR

Sub Test	Number of Cases	Possible Score	Respondent's Score Range	Mean Score
Group #1 - Administrator's Evaluation: Appear very-well adjusted to school and local cultural environment.				
Self Acceptance	12	180	146-176	158.33
Acceptance of Others	12	140	88-132	110.83
Cross-Cultural Acceptance	12	130	91-126	107.58
Total Score	12	450	331-416	376.75
Group #2 - Administrator's Evaluation: Appear to have marginally adjusted to school and the local cultural environment.				
Self-Acceptance	13	180	111-167	146.30
Acceptance of Others	13	140	85-131	119.46
Cross-Cultural Acceptance	13	130	90-121	110.77
Total Score	13	450	320-408	368.77
Group #3 - Administrator's Evaluation: Appear poorly adjusted to school and the local cultural environment.				
Self-Acceptance	4	180	119-169	142.50
Acceptance of Others	4	140	88-108	100.75

TABLE 22--Continued

Sub Test	Number of Cases	Possible Score	Respondent's Score Range	Mean Score
Cross-Cultural Acceptance	4	130	82-102	93.50
Total Score	4	450	289-374	336.75
Combined Groups #1 and #2 (Very well adjusted and marginally adjusted).				
Self-Acceptance	25	180	111-176	152.08
Acceptance of Others	25	140	85-132	115.32
Cross-Cultural Acceptance	25	130	90-126	109.20
Total Score	25	450	320-416	372.60

Keeping in mind that the test administrator's evaluation was subjective and that discrimination between "well-adjusted" and "marginally adjusted" is not as clear cut semantically as the difference between either of those phrases and "poorly adjusted," Groups 1 and 2 were combined (see the last set of scores in Table 22) for evaluation purposes. Comparing the mean scale scores, between Group 3 and the combined first and second groups, the discriminating power of the three attitude scales and the total scale score take on greater significance.

Referring back to Table 21, three of the four mean scores for the total respondent population closely match those of the combined first and second groups of respondents from Brazil. The mean score for the sub-test on acceptance of others, shows the greatest difference between the aforementioned groups and this amounts to a difference of 5.09.

Comparison of Mean Scores

Sub-Test	Mean Scores Groups 1 and 2	Mean Scores Total Population
Acceptance of Self	152.08	149.02
Acceptance of Others	115.32	110.23
Cross-Cultural Acceptance	109.20	108.62
Total Score	372.60	367.87

The evidence suggests that the test administrator in Brazil is using criteria for his evaluation of the teachers' adjustment to an alien culture which are somewhat different from those found in the attitude scale used in this study. Putting it in a different context, the attitude scale is unable to discriminate clearly between those respondents who, in the opinion of the test administrator, have made a very good adjustment and those who have made but a marginal adjustment to their overseas environment.

When we examine the test results for the teachers judged by the administrator in Brazil to be poorly adjusted to the Brazilian school and culture, there is more clear cut evidence of agreement. A comparison of the mean scores for Group 3 with those for the combined Groups 1 and 2 reflects a significant difference. This is particularly evident with the cross-cultural and total test score means. In both instances, the Group 3 means are more than one standard deviation below the means for the combined Groups 1 and 2. This takes on additional meaning when we consider that only one-sixth of the scores for any test population will fall within this range. Such evidence suggests score limits below which a candidate might well experience great difficulty in adjusting to life overseas.

As explained in the letter from Ricketson, quoted in

the previous chapter, he judged all the teachers in Tokyo who completed the attitude scale to be well adjusted to the school and to the Japanese culture. Since he chose not to place any of the teachers in the second and third groups (marginally or poorly adjusted), a direct comparison could not be made between the Japanese and Brazilian respondents. However, if we compare the mean scores (Table 23) for the combined Brazilian groups (1 and 2) with those of the total Japanese respondent population, some interesting observations can be made.

TABLE 23

COMPARISON OF BRAZILIAN GROUPS 1 AND 2 WITH TOTAL JAPANESE POPULATION

Sub Test	No. Cases	Score Range	Mean Score
Self-Acceptance			
Brazil groups 1 & 2	25	111-176	152.08
Japan total population	23	101-171	146-82
Acceptance of Others			
Brazil groups 1 & 2	25	85-132	115.32
Japan total population	23	84-128	110.69
Cross-Cultural Acceptance			
Brazil groups 1 & 2	25	90-126	109.20
Japan total population	23	95-125	109.95
Total Score			
Brazil groups 1 & 2	25	320-416	372.60
Japan total population	23	297-418	367.47

The fact that the Japanese respondent population's score varies but 0.75 with the mean score of the two Brazilian groups on the cross-cultural test lends support to Ricketson's contention that all the teachers tested at the Tokyo school had made a satisfactory adjustment to the school and the Japanese culture. Also, it should be noted that the range of scores on the cross-cultural tests are quite similar. However, this evidence is somewhat misleading when it is noted that eight (27.58 percent) of the Brazilian scores were below the mean for the combined groups while ten (43.47 percent), a much larger percentage of the Japanese respondents, were below the mean for the total population.

In order to more clearly establish whether there were significant differences between the means, an analysis of variance (Table 24) was carried out on the subtest and total test scores for the two respondent populations.

The one significant F value in the analysis of variance was found for the scores relating to the subtest for Cross-Cultural Acceptance. The F value is a determination of the ratio of between groups variance to within groups variance. By using an F table (Snedecor's Table) and locating the point of intersection for the appropriate column and row for the indicated degrees of

TABLE 24

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN BRAZILIAN AND JAPANESE RESPONDENTS BASED ON SUB-TESTS AND TOTAL TEST SCORES

Sub-Test Variables	Degrees Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Self-Acceptance					
Between Groups	2	373.0401	186.5201	0.648	0.527
Within Groups	49	14095.9407	287.6723		
Total	51	14468.9808			
Acceptance of Others					
Between Groups	2	399.4874	199.7437	1.441	0.247
Within Groups	49	6791.7434	138.6070		
Total	51	7191.2308			
Cross-Cultural Acceptance					
Between Groups	2	1001.9670	500.9835	4.880	0.012
Within Groups	49	5030.3407	102.660		
Total	51	6032.3077			
Total Score					
Between Groups	2	4246.2571	2123.1285	2.340	0.107
Within Groups	49	44457.8005	907.3021		
Total	51	48704.0576			

freedom (in this case 2 and 49 respectively) one finds that an F value of 4.880 is significant at the .012 level.

It would appear that the analysis of variance of the Japanese and Brazilian sub-test scores has clearly established that there is a significant difference between these two teacher populations in terms of cross-cultural acceptance as measured by the attitude scale used in this study. Further, the analysis has established that, in terms of the sub-tests for self-acceptance and acceptance of others, there is no significant difference between the Japanese and Brazilian respondents.

At this point, the question might be asked, quite apart from the significance of the sub-tests in relation to the two respondent populations, is there any evidence of correlation between the sub-tests themselves. In order to answer this question, each of the three sub-tests and the total score were subjected to comparison using a Pearson Correlation Coefficient. The evidence (Table 25) clearly established significant correlations between the various sub-tests and the total test scores.

TABLE 25

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Variable Pairs	Level of Significance
Self-Acceptance with Acceptance of Others	.001
Self-Acceptance with Cross-Cultural Acceptance	.008
Self-Acceptance with Total Score	.000
Acceptance of Others with Cross-Cultural Acceptance	.007
Acceptance of Others with Total Score	.001
Cross-Cultural Acceptance with Total Score	.001

The Pearons coefficients establish the fact that there is significant correlation between all the sub-tests, each with the others, and the total test scores. These statistics lend support to the contention that a cross-cultural attitude scale can be constructed that will correlate with, and become an extension of, Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale.

Given the fact that there is evidence in support of the validity of the modified Berger Scale, are there other factors in the demographic questionnaire which pro-

vide additional support in identifying the candidate best able to adjust to life in an alien culture? Again, using a Pearson Correlation, variables fifteen through nineteen were examined for correlation with the sub-tests and total test results in the modified Berger Scale.

Variables fifteen through nineteen involve questions as to years in the teaching profession, years taught overseas, years at present teaching post, number of overseas posts and finally, in how many languages is the teacher reasonably fluent. When the data obtained from each of these questions were compared with the results obtained on each of the sub-tests and total scores, the Pearson coefficients showed in all but one instance no significant relationship between the variables and sub-tests. There was a correlation between the question on the number of overseas teaching posts and the scores on the test for acceptance of others. This correlation was significant at the .044 level. Regretably there were a limited number of candidates in the study that held more than one overseas teaching post.

The final statistical analysis of the data involved the use of a multiple step-wise regression (Table 26). This analysis was employed to determine which of the twenty variables in combination with the sub-tests would provide the most significant data for evaluating personnel

for life in an alien culture.

A matrix of correlation coefficients was generated by comparing each of the twenty-four variables (four test scores, nineteen demographic variables and the test administrator's evaluations) in turn, each with the other. Taking each sub-test in turn as the dependent variable, the computer chooses the independent variable coefficient from the matrix pool thatbest matches with the dependent variable and through the miltiple regression equation solves for an F value. In the next step, the second best variable coefficient is chosen plugged into the formula and another F value computed. This step-wise process continues until the next chosen independent variable coefficient will not equate with the already accepted independent variables and the one dependent variable. By checking each successively generated F value for significance, the list of independent variables that are significant in conjunction with the dependent variable (a sub-test) can easily be determined.

Multiple step-wise regressions were carried out between the twenty independent variables and each of the sub-tests and the total test results. The one regression that proved significant involved the sub-test for cross-cultural acceptance with three variables. The first variable accepted (highest correlation) was number four,

childhood environment: rural, suburban, urban, or a combination. The second variable to enter the equation was variable number two, the respondents marital status: single, married, divorced, or widowed. The final variable which produced a significant F value with the other two variables was number twenty, the test administrator's evaluation of the respondents.

TABLE 26

A MULTIPLE STEP-WISE REGRESSION WITH CROSS-CULTURAL ACCEPTANCE AS THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE
(Level of Significance .01)

Analysis of Variance for Cross-Cultural Acceptance	Degrees Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Val.
Regression	7	2039.02418	291.28917	3.20957
Residual	44	3993.28351	90.75644	
Independent Variables:				
Variable #4: Childhood Environment			8.38435	
Variable #2: Marital Status			6.42566	
Variable #20: Administrator's Evaluation			5.87484	
Variable #1: Sex of Respondent			*2.65414	
Variable #14: Undergraduate Residence			*1.51936	

*F value lacks significance

The significant correlation between the Cross-Cultural Test and the administrator's evaluation of the respondents lends support to the Cross-Cultural Scale as a diagnostic instrument. In respect to the demographic variables, with the exception of childhood environment and marital status, the regressive test data do not support the hypothesis that these biographical factors are useful in helping to identify teachers best able to adjust to life overseas.

Chapter V will include a discussion of the findings, some conclusions, and implications for further research in measuring cross-cultural strength.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of the study has been to develop and test an instrument for measuring cross-cultural acceptance as an extension of self-acceptance and acceptance of others in one's own culture. Subordinate to this major consideration, the following ancillary questions were investigated:

1. Can Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale be successfully modified and used to measure a teacher candidate's cross-cultural strength (attitudes) as well as his/her acceptance of self and acceptance of others?

2. Can factors be identified in an individual's background that can be correlated to his/her ability to adjust to an alien culture?

3. Can a questionnaire be used to provide statistically significant evidence that identifiable factors in an individual's background are indicators of one's ability to adjust to life in an alien culture?

4. Can the results from Berger's modified Self-Acceptance Scale and a background questionnaire be predictive of the amount of pre- and/or in-service orientation and counseling needed by a teacher candidate for work overseas?

Eight hypotheses are predicated on the four questions outlined above. In the succeeding pages, each hypothesis will once again be stated and discussed in the light of the findings generated by the study.

Summary of Findings

The first hypothesis predicted that an attitude scale could be developed to indicate a teacher's potential for adjusting to life and work in an alien culture. There is evidence to support this hypothesis in several dimensions. The Pearson correlation coefficients (Table 25) establish the fact that there is significant (.001 level) correlation between Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale, comprising the Self-Acceptance and Acceptance of Others Scales, and the Cross-Cultural Scale designed for the study. Evidence to support the diagnostic qualities of the Cross-Cultural Scale is found in Table 23 comparing the mean scores of the entire well adjusted Japanese group with Groups 1 and 2 of the respondents in Brazil. Another piece of supporting evidence is found in the analysis of variance (Table 24) showing a significant (.012) difference between the two groups of respondents--the well adjusted total group of respondents in Japan and the Brazilian respondents who were judged well, marginal or poorly adjusted to their school and the Brazilian culture. Finally, although the sample was small, the Brazilian respondents, judged by the test administrator as poorly adjusted to life overseas, reflected mean sub-test and total scores significantly lower than the groups judged marginally and well adjusted to their overseas environment.

The second hypothesis predicted that teachers with strong positive self-concepts would demonstrate accepting behavior toward others. The correlation of the respondent's scores on the Self-Acceptance Scale with those on the Scale for Acceptance of Others was significant at the .001 level, lending strong support to the second hypothesis. Further, this reinforced earlier work done with the Berger Scale.

The third hypothesis predicted that teachers who demonstrate strong cross-cultural strengths will also reflect accepting behavior towards others in their own culture. This hypothesis was supported by a correlation of the respondent scores on the Cross-Cultural Scale with those on the scale measuring Acceptance of Others. The correlation proved significant at the .007 level.

Hypotheses four and five, predict that childhood ethnic and linguistic experiences, educational background, kinds of teaching experience and fluency in the host country language are all factors which correlate with a teacher's ability to adjust to an alien culture. On the other hand, hypothesis six predicts that age, sex and marital status will <u>not</u> be a significant factor in a teacher's ability to adjust.

The results of the multiple step-wise regression, showed very little correlation between the nineteen demographic variables and the various sub-test scores. In

only one instance, with respondent scores on the Cross-Cultural Scale, was there evidence of significant positive correlation with two of the variables. These were variable four, the respondent's childhood environment (rural, suburban, or urban) and variable two, marital status (single, married, divorced or widowed). Thus the evidence gives limited support for a part of hypothesis four and no support for hypothesis five. Contrary to the prediction in hypothesis six, marital status was significant at least in relation to the results on the Cross-Cultural Scale.

The seventh hypothesis predicts that there will be a positive correlation between the scores on the modified Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale and the school administrator's judgment of a teacher's adjustment to life in an alien culture. Since the administrator in Brazil placed his respondents in one of three evaluative categories and the Japanese administrator judged all his teachers to fall into one, it was not possible to treat the data from these two populations in the same manner. However, the results reported in Table 23, comparing the total Japanese population of respondents with the well and marginally adjusted groups from Brazil, lend support to the contention that there would be a positive correlation between the two groups. The test for analysis of variance between the two groups of teachers (Table 24)

reflects a significant difference (.012) between the two teacher populations on the basis of the test for Cross-Cultural Acceptance. This evidence provides further support to the validity of the evaluations provided by the two test administrators although the evidence must be considered speculative.

Conclusions

The final hypothesis predicts that the data obtained from the modified Berger's Self-Acceptance Scale will provide a predictive numerical "Adjustment Factor." The "Adjustment Factor," in terms of the established relationship between the three sub-tests on the modified Berger Scale, should be considered the total score derived from the sum of the three sub-test scores. The total scores ranged from 289 to 418 with a mean of 367.87 and a median of 372.5. Since the central tendency of the mean and median scores approximate one another, a score of 370 represents the average typical performance on the Modified Berger Scale. It would appear that, using the standard deviation of 30.90, a teacher who earned a total score below 340 (-1 SD) should be considered a risk in terms of making a satisfactory adjustment to an alien culture. This is supported by data presented in Table 21.

The major hypothesis, that an attitude scale can be developed for measuring cross-cultural strength, was

supported as were those reflecting on the relationships revealed by the other sub-tests. Apart from marital status and childhood environment, there was no support for demographic factors as contributors to cross-cultural strength. The evidence, though inconclusive, suggests there is a positive correlation between the results on the Modified Berger Self-Acceptance Scale and the test administrator's evaluation of the adjustment of the teacher respondents.

The findings of the study suggest that an attitude scale measuring self-acceptance, acceptance of others and cross-cultural acceptance be used, along with academic ability, aptitude and personal recommendations, in selecting teachers for work in overseas schools. The attitude scale should be considered as a major screening device. However, in establishing evaluative criteria, one should include human judgment and feelings provided by a personal interview since objective data are not always sufficient.

Recommendations

It is recommended that, in view of the results from this study, further studies be undertaken to generate additional supportive data and to refine an attitude scale measuring cross-cultural strength. Specifically, the following steps are recommended:

1. A larger pool of cross-cultural attitude statements be created and field tested for their ability to discriminate cross-cultural strength.

2. The attitude statements with the greatest discriminating power be incorporated into an instrument to be tested with a much larger sample of respondents.

3. The respondent sample should not only include teachers already working in overseas schools, and with more than one overseas school experience, but also teachers who are about to embark on their first overseas assignment. This latter group should be followed up at their overseas post. Through the use of retests and evaluations by the overseas school administrator, the instrument's reliability can be further validated.

Once norms for the "Adjustment Factor" are established, the overseas school administrator will be better able to pinpoint the score range which best meets the demands set by the environment in which his/her school is located. It would appear, for example, that the teacher hired to work at a school located in a remote mining camp in Borneo might need greater cross-cultural strength than the teacher being considered for the American School in the Hague.

It should be kept in mind that identifying the teacher with cross-cultural strength or potential for building cross-cultural strength is only the first step in obtaining and maintaining a strong culturally integrated overseas faculty. Both pre-embarkation and on-site orientation programs are essential to the stability and emotional health of the group. Performance on the Attitude Scale will help determine the nature and extent of such an orientation program.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

A MEASURE OF ATTITUDES

This is a study of some of your attitudes. The best answer is what you feel to be true of yourself.

PLEASE RESPOND TO EACH QUESTION ACCORDING TO THE FOLLOWING SCHEME:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

		Circle Your Answer				
1.	I love to be with people and enjoy parties.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I find people who claim to be agnostics or atheists are undesirable associates.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I would find the prospect of dating an attractive foreigner rather exciting.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I would feel very uncomfortable at a reception where most of the guests were strangers to me.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I find the prospect of foreign travel most exciting.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I admire the couple who adopts a child of another race.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am easily nauseated by unpleasant odors.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I am disturbed when I observe a couple showing affection for one another in public.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I would enjoy attempting to communicate in another language.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I would get upset if a beggar touched me.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I enjoy the give and take in bargaining for a purchase.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I get embarrassed when I hear an "off color" joke.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I enjoy trying foods that are new and different.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I enjoy the challenge in attempting to communicate with someone with whom I do not share a common language.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I could not tolerate sharing bathroom facilities with anyone other than family or close friends.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I must have certain teaching materials in the classroom if I am to do an effective job as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I think of myself as being very adaptable.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	It would be difficult to be friendly with someone who was dating a person of another race.	1	2	3	4	5

PLEASE RESPOND TO EACH QUESTION ACCORDING TO THE FOLLOWING SCHEME:

1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Uncertain 4 Disagree 5 Strongly Disagree

19.	I would enjoy the challenge of a job overseas.	1 2 3 4 5
20.	Seeing naked children or women nursing their babies. in public would disturb my sensibilities.	1 2 3 4 5
21.	I could not be happy in an area where most of my neighbors did not speak English.	1 2 3 4 5
22.	I get frustrated with children who have to have directions repeated.	1 2 3 4 5
23.	When considering a new job, I believe challenge and interest are more important than salary.	1 2 3 4 5
24.	I find ethnic jokes offensive.	1 2 3 4 5
25.	I think the foreign visitor to the United States who fails to follow our social customs is rather rude.	1 2 3 4 5
26.	I believe that the advantages of working with a racially and culturally heterogeneous class far outweighs the disadvantages of teaching such a group.	1 2 3 4 5

NOW TO HELP CLASSIFY YOUR ANSWERS STATISTICALLY MAY I ASK YOUR RESPONSE TO A FEW QUESTIONS ABOUT YOURSELF AND YOUR FAMILY.

Please check the appropriate boxes

1. Sex: ___Male ___Female
2. My present age is: ___20-25 ___26-30 ___31-35 ___36-40 ___Over 40
3. Most of my childhood was spent in a ___Rural ___Suburban ___Urban environment.
4. My father was born: ___in America ___Immigrated to the United States.
5. My mother was born: ___in America ___Immigrated to the United States.
6. The language spoken in my parents' home is ___English ___a language other than English.
7. During all or most of my childhood I lived in: ___an ethnic neighborhood ___in a heterogeneous neighborhood.
8. My elementary schooling was: ___public ___private ___day school ___boarding school.
9. My secondary schooling was: ___public ___private ___day school ___boarding school.

10. I have (number): ___brothers and ___sisters.

11. During college I lived ___at home ___on campus ___off campus.

12. Since completing college, I have lived (number) ___years at home and ___years away from home.

APPENDIX B

SPLIT-HALF RELIABILITY

Respondent	Sum of Odd Scores	Sum of Even Scores
1	62	60
2	63	56
3	58	59
4	61	53
5	57	53
6	55	54
7	54	54
8	54	52
9	49	55
10	49	53
Total	562	549
11	49	52
12	47	54
13	51	50
14	51	49
15	48	52
16	47	53
17	45	53
18	49	49
19	52	45
20	46	50
Total	485	507

Respondent	Sum of Odd Scores	Sum of Even Scores
21	48	48
22	46	49
23	45	47
24	47	45
25	47	44
26	46	43
27	45	41
Total	324	317

1-10	562	549
11-20	485	507
21-27	324	317
Grand Total	1371	1373

$$\frac{\text{Average Odd Score}}{} = \frac{1371}{27} = 50.77$$

$$\frac{\text{Average Even Score}}{} = \frac{1373}{27} = 50.85$$

N = 27

High Group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	Individual Score
	3	5	5	4	5	3	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	122
	4	5	5	2	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	3	5	4	119
	4	5	4	2	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	117
	11	15	14	8	15	12	14	15	15	14	14	14	15	15	14	14	14	15	15	15	14	13	14	11	14	14	Sum of 3 High
	12	11	11	9	13	11	11	11	11	10	9	12	12	10	8	5	13	12	10	10	9	11	10	6	9	10	Sum of 3 Low
	-1	4	3	-1	2	1	3	4	4	4	5	2	3	5	6	9	1	3	5	5	5	2	4	5	5	4	Difference
	11.33	1.33	1.00	11.33	0.00	0.33	1.00	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.66	0.66	1.00	1.66	2.00	3.00	0.33	1.00	1.66	1.66	1.66	2.66	1.33	1.00	1.66	1.33	Difference / 3
Low Group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	Individual Score
	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	2	2	2	4	4	3	4	2	4	5	4	3	4	3	3	2	4	2	86
	4	4	4	3	5	3	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	1	1	5	3	3	4	2	4	3	2	2	4	89
	5	3	4	2	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	2	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	2	3	4	91
	12	11	11	9	13	11	11	11	11	10	9	12	12	10	8	5	13	12	10	10	9	11	10	6	9	10	Sum of 3 Low

APPENDIX D

Hello - I sincerely appreciate your taking some of your valuable time to answer my questionnaire. Your replies will require about 20 minutes to complete and will prove of great help in furthering my studies.

Donald L. Kingsbury

In answering the following, please keep in mind that there is no right answer for any statement. The best answer is what you feel to be true of yourself. Feel free to comment in the margins if you wish.

PLEASE RESPOND TO EACH QUESTION ACCORDING TO THE FOLLOWING:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all true of myself	Slightly true of myself	About halfway true of myself	Mostly true of myself	True of myself

		Circle your answer
#1.	I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.	1 2 3 4 5
#2.	I don't question my worth as a person, even if I think others do.	1 2 3 4 5
*3.	I can be comfortable with all varieties of people -- from the highest to the lowest.	1 2 3 4 5
*4.	I can become so absorbed in the work I'm doing that it doesn't bother me not to have any intimate friends.	1 2 3 4 5
+5.	I enjoy associating with people who have different cultural backgrounds.	1 2 3 4 5
*6.	I don't approve of spending time and energy doing things for other people. I believe in looking to my family and myself more and letting others shift for themselves.	1 2 3 4 5
#7.	When people say nice things about me, I find it difficult to believe they really mean it. I think maybe they're kidding me or just aren't being sincere.	1 2 3 4 5
+8.	I find people who claim to be agnostics or atheists are undesirable associates.	1 2 3 4 5
#9.	If there is any criticism or anyone says anything about me, I just can't take it.	1 2 3 4 5
#10.	I don't say much at social affairs because I'm afraid that people will criticize me or laugh if I say the wrong thing.	1 2 3 4 5
+11.	I would find the prospect of dating an attractive foreigner rather exciting.	1 2 3 4 5

#12.	I realize that I'm not living very effectively but I just don't believe I've got it in me to use my energies in better ways.	1 2 3 4 5
*13.	I don't approve of doing favors for people. If you're too agreeable they'll take advantage of you.	1 2 3 4 5
+14.	I would feel very uncomfortable at a reception where most of the guests were dressed differently than me.	1 2 3 4 5
#15.	I look on most of the feelings and impulses I have toward people as being quite natural and acceptable.	1 2 3 4 5
#16.	Something inside me just won't let me be satisfied with any job I've done -- if it turns out well, I get a very smug feeling that this is beneath me, I shouldn't be satisfied with this, this isn't a fair test.	1 2 3 4 5
+17.	I find the prospect of foreign travel most exciting.	1 2 3 4 5
#18.	I feel different from other people. I'd like to have the feeling of security that comes from knowing I'm not too different from others.	1 2 3 4 5
#19.	I'm afraid for people that I like to find out what I'm really like, for fear they'd be disappointed in me.	1 2 3 4 5
#20.	I am frequently bothered by feelings of inferiority.	1 2 3 4 5
+21.	I could seriously consider adopting a child of another race.	1 2 3 4 5
#22.	Because of other people, I haven't been able to achieve as much as I should have.	1 2 3 4 5
#23.	I am quite shy and self-conscious in social situations.	1 2 3 4 5
+24.	I am easily nauseated by unpleasant odors.	1 2 3 4 5
#25.	In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.	1 2 3 4 5
*26.	I usually ignore the feelings of others when I'm accomplishing some important end.	1 2 3 4 5
+27.	I am disturbed when I observe a couple showing affection for one another in public.	1 2 3 4 5
#28.	I seem to have a real inner strength in handling things. I'm on a pretty solid foundation and it makes me pretty sure of myself.	1 2 3 4 5
*29.	There's no sense in compromising. When people have values I don't like, I just don't care to have much to do with them.	1 2 3 4 5

+30.	I would enjoy attempting to communicate in another language.	1 2 3 4 5
*31.	The person you marry may not be perfect, but I believe in trying to get him (or her) to change along desirable lines.	1 2 3 4 5
*32.	I see no objection to stepping on other people's toes a little if it'll help get me what I want in life.	1 2 3 4 5
+33.	I would get upset if a beggar touched me.	1 2 3 4 5
#34.	I feel self-conscious when I'm with people who have a superior position to mine in business or at school.	1 2 3 4 5
*35.	I try to get people to do what I want them to do, in one way or another.	1 2 3 4 5
+36.	I enjoy the give and take in bargaining for a purchase.	1 2 3 4 5
*37.	I often tell people what they should do when they're having trouble in making a decision.	1 2 3 4 5
*38.	I enjoy myself most when I'm alone, away from other people.	1 2 3 4 5
+39.	I get embarrassed when I hear an "off color" joke.	1 2 3 4 5
#40.	I think I'm neurotic or something.	1 2 3 4 5
*41.	I feel neither above nor below the people I meet.	1 2 3 4 5
+42.	I enjoy trying foods that are new to me and different.	1 2 3 4 5
#43.	Sometimes people misunderstand me when I try to keep them from making mistakes that could have an important effect on their lives.	1 2 3 4 5
*44.	Very often I don't try to be friendly with people because I think they won't like me.	1 2 3 4 5
+45.	I enjoy the challenge in attempting to communicate with someone with whom I do not share a common language.	1 2 3 4 5
*46.	There are very few times when I compliment people for their talents or jobs they've done.	1 2 3 4 5
+47.	I could not tolerate sharing bathroom facilities with anyone other than family or close friends.	1 2 3 4 5
*48.	I enjoy doing little favors for people even if I don't know them well.	1 2 3 4 5
#49.	I feel that I'm a person of worth, on an equal plane with others.	1 2 3 4 5
+50.	I must have certain commercially prepared teaching materials in the classroom if I am to do an effective job as a teacher.	1 2 3 4 5

#51. I can't avoid feeling guilty about the way I feel toward certain people in my life. 1 2 3 4 5

*52. I prefer to be alone rather than have close friendships with any of the people around me. 1 2 3 4 5

#53. I'm not afraid of meeting new people. I feel that I'm a worthwhile person and there's no reason why they should dislike me. 1 2 3 4 5

+54. I believe the American way of doing things is usually the best way. 1 2 3 4 5

#55. I sort of only half believe in myself. 1 2 3 4 5

*56. I seldom worry about other people. I'm really pretty self-centered. 1 2 3 4 5

+57. It would be difficult to be friendly with someone who was dating a person of another race. 1 2 3 4 5

#58. I'm very sensitive. People say things and I have a tendency to think they're criticizing me or insulting me in some way and later when I think of it, they may not have meant anything like that at all. 1 2 3 4 5

#59. I think I have certain abilities and other people say so too, but I wonder if I'm not giving them an importance way beyond what they deserve. 1 2 3 4 5

+60. I would enjoy the challenge of a job overseas. 1 2 3 4 5

#61. I feel confident that I can do something about the problems that may arise in the future. 1 2 3 4 5

*62. I believe that people should get credit for their accomplishments, but I very seldom come across work that deserves praise. 1 2 3 4 5

*63. When someone asks for advice about some personal problem, I'm most likely to say, "It's up to you to decide," rather than tell him what he should do. 1 2 3 4 5

+64. Seeing naked children or women nursing their babies in public would disturb my sensibilities. 1 2 3 4 5

#65. I guess I put on a show to impress people. I know I'm not the person I pretend to be. 1 2 3 4 5

*66. I feel that for the most part one has to fight his way through life. That means that people who stand in the way will be hurt. 1 2 3 4 5

*67. I can't help feeling superior (or inferior) to most of the people I know. 1 2 3 4 5

+68. I could not be happy in an area where most of my neighbors did not speak English. 1 2 3 4 5

#69. I do not worry or condemn myself if other people pass judgment against me. 1 2 3 4 5

*70. I don't hesitate to urge people to live by the same high set of values which I have for myself. 1 2 3 4 5

+71. I get frustrated with children who have to have directions repeated. 1 2 3 4 5

*72. I can be friendly with people who do things which I consider wrong. 1 2 3 4 5

#73. I don't feel very normal, but I want to feel normal. 1 2 3 4 5

#74. When I'm in a group I ususlly don't say much for fear of saying the wrong thing. 1 2 3 4 5

+75. When considering a new job, I believe challenge and interest are more important than salary. 1 2 3 4 5

#76. I have a tendency to sidestep my problems. 1 2 3 4 5

*77. If people are weak and inefficient I'm inclined to take advantage of them. I believe you must be strong to achieve your goals. 1 2 3 4 5

+78. I'm easily irritated by people who argue with me. 1 2 3 4 5

*79. I find ethnic jokes offensive. 1 2 3 4 5

*80. When I'm dealing with younger persons, I expect them to do what I tell them. 1 2 3 4 5

*81. I don't see much point to doing things for others unless they can do you some good later on. 1 2 3 4 5

+82. I think the foreign visitor to the United States who fails to follow our social customs is rather rude. 1 2 3 4 5

#83. Even when people do think well of me, I feel sort of guilty because I know I must be fooling them--that if I were really to be myself, they wouldn't think well of me. 1 2 3 4 5

#84. I feel that I'm on the same level as other people and that helps to establish good relations with them. 1 2 3 4 5

*85. If someone I know is having difficulty in working things out for himself, I like to tell him what to do. 1 2 3 4 5

+86. I believe that the advantages of working with a racially and culturally heterogeneous class far outweighs the disadvantages of teaching such a group. 1 2 3 4 5

#87. I feel that people are apt to react differently to me than they would normally react to other people. 1 2 3 4 5

#88. I live too much by other people's standards. 1 2 3 4 5

#89. When I have to address a group, I get self-conscious and have difficulty saying things well. 1 2 3 4 5

#90. If I didn't always have such hard luck, I'd accomplish much more than I have. 1 2 3 4 5

- self-accepting
* - acceptance of others
+ - cross-cultural

NOW TO HELP CLASSIFY YOUR ANSWERS STATISTICALLY, MAY I ASK FOR YOUR RESPONSES TO A FEW QUESTIONS ABOUT YOURSELF AND YOUR FAMILY.

Please respond to the appropriate boxes

1. Sex: ___Female ___Male
2. Marital status: ___Single ___Married ___Divorced
3. My present age is: ___20-24 ___25-29 ___30-34 ___35-39 ___Over 40
4. Most of my childhood was spent in a ___Rural ___Suburban ___Urban environment.
5. My father: ___was born in the United States ___immigrated to the U.S.A.
6. My mother: ___was born in the United States ___immigrated to the U.S.A.
7. The language spoken in my parents home is: ___English ___a language other than English.
8. During all or most of my childhood I lived in: ___an ethnic neighborhood ___a heterogeneous neighborhood.
9. I have (number): ___brothers and ___sisters.
10. Ranking the oldest child at first, I am the (number)___child in my family.
11. My elementary schooling was: ___Public ___Parochial ___Other private.
12. My secondary schooling was: ___Public ___Parochial ___Other private.
13. As a college undergraduate I lived ___at home ___on campus ___off campus.
14. This is my (number) ___year in the teaching profession.
15. Including the current school year, I have taught a total of (number)___ year overseas.
16. This is my (number) ___year of teaching at my present school.
17. Beginning with my most recent <u>previous</u> overseas school employment, I have taught in the following countries for the indicated number of years:

    Country_____ Years_____ Country_____Years_____

    Country_____ Years_____ Country_____Years_____
18. Conversation wise, I am reasonably fluent in the following languages:

    _____;_____;_____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

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